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ABSTRACT

The proceedings of the fourth annual meeting of the College Reading Association (a fledgling organization in 1961 when this meeting was held) consisted of two symposia, a number of papers, and special reports on research related to reading, as follows: (1) "Opening Remarks" (Albert J. Mazurkiewicz); (2) "Improving Reading in the English Classroom" (Phillip Shaw); (3) "Improving Reading in the Laboratory" (Martha J. Maxwell); (4); "Improving Reading as a Psychological Service" (Barbara Ann Becher); (5) "Role Playing as an Aid in Improving Reading Ability and Empathy" (Charles J. Versacci); (6) "Reading Achievement and Social-Cultural Conditioning" (Albert J. Mazurkiewicz); (7) "Psychotherapeutic Correlates to the Teaching of Reading" (Edward R. Dubin); (8) "Problems in Speed Reading" (Lawrence Charry); (9) "A New Method of Teaching Reading" (Evelyn N. Wood); (10) "Lack of Reading Training: A Public School Viewpoint" (Rosemary Green Wilson); and (11) "The Teacher Today" (Eleanor Logan). (MS)

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COLLEGE READING

ASSOCIATION

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College Reading Association

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Pa

I. OPENING REMARKS by President A. J. Mazurkiewicz 1

II. GENERAL SESSION

1. Improving Reading in the English Classroom by Phillip Shaw 3

2. Improving Reading in the Laboratory by Martha J. Maxwell 8

3. Improving Reading as a Psychological Service by Barbara Ann Becher 17

III. SPECIAL REPORTS ON CURRENT RESEARCH

1. Role Playing as an Aid In Improving Reading Ability and Empathy by Charles J. Versacci 25

2. Reading Achievement and Social-Cultural Conditioning by A. J. Mazurkiewicz 31

3. Psychotherapeutic Correlates to the Teaching of Reading by Edward R. Dubin 39

IV. SYMPOSIUM: SPEED READING

1. Problems in Speed Reading by Lawrence Charry 50

2. A New Method of Teaching Reading by Evelyn N. Wood 58

V. SYMPOSIUM: TEACHING THE TEACHERS OF READING

1. Lack of Reading Training: A Public School Viewpoint by Rosemary Green Wilson 61

2. The Teacher Today by Eleanor Logan 67

PREFACE

The College Reading Association held its fourth annual meeting at Lafayette College, Easton, Pennsylvania, on April 22, 1961. The program concluded two symposia, a number of papers, and special reports on current research related to reading. At the business meeting at the close of the session the following were elected to serve in the coming year:

Mrs. Herbert E. Ketcham, President-Elect
Mrs. Martha Maxwell, Director
Paul Terwilliger, Director
A. B. Herr, Director
Charles G. Shinaberry, Director

OPENING REMARKS

Albert J. Mazurkiewicz
Lehigh University

The current meeting marks the 4th year the College Reading Association has existed. This anniversary of the fledgling organization is a crucial one. Aside from this organizational crisis, we meet at Lafayette College at a time of ferment in the profession. Much criticism continues to engage the public's and the profession's attention.

While some of us have expected to see a lessening of interest in reading and its problems of development and remediation, we see instead a quickening of interest. To some extent this is a reflection of the pride we have in our profession and the concomitant energies we have expended in developing a public awareness of the value of reading. However, we have not worked alone. Much credit must be given to the men and women who work in the communications field as well as to the publishers of newspapers, magazines, and books who have begun new programs to promote increased public awareness of the value of reading. Campaigns by all print media to encourage reading may be seen everywhere.

Today we seem to have a champion of our cause in the White House and we may safely assume that the publicity given his voracious reading habits will generate snob appeal for this tool called reading. We might look forward to the development of reading efficiency and effectiveness as a status symbol.

Richard Tobin in a recent publication, issued a call to arms to every communicator in the fields of print media, every professional association, every individual writer and editor "to give his undivided loyalty and energy to help create and restore reading as a habit to millions of our people for whom its unmatched wonders and personal satisfaction have been either neglected or mislaid". Thru such calls to the causes of reading we may halt a "distressing and discernible illiteracy". Teachers, consultants, and administrators might also be encouraged by such calls to demand that a wealth of books and materials be supplied as the ammunition with which to do battle. and the public encouraged to direct more of its tax dollar to support such a campaign rather than to support lesser and ignoble projects.

Whether or not such goals are realized in the next decade or two will to a large extent be dependent not only on the leadership given by members of the reading profession but also on the profession itself which must demonstrate that it is equal to the task by advancing its professional standards, by critically examining its methods of teaching reading, its training programs for teachers and specialists, as well as its diagnostic procedures. To a portion of this task the College Reading Association in this meeting addresses itself. Much remains undone. We would hope that future meetings will give attention to more of these tasks to aid the achievement of the noble goal of developing not only the well-read man, that shibboleth of American education for long years, but also a citizenry for whom reading is a highly valued habit - one which is never lost.

IMPROVING READING IN THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM

Phillip Shaw
Brooklyn College

Before I suggest methods of improving reading in the English classroom, I should like to comment upon three related issues.

One issue is a strange misconception concerning the teaching of reading. This is that people who major in English thereby are qualified to teach a course in reading improvement. This assumption may be a curious by-product of the traditional graduate program for prospective college English teachers, which prepares scholars in their subject-matter field without training them for their future occupation of teaching. Perhaps the notion has arisen from utter innocence about the scope and complexity of the science of teaching reading improvement. Whatever the reason for the misconception that English teachers are *ipso facto* reading teachers, I do not wish to imply below that my suggestions are a substitute for formal study of teaching reading improvement.

The second issue relates to the kind of readings proper for an English composition course. The question is whether readings should be only of literature and about literature, as opposed to reading matter on many topics, like causes of the Korean War, the meaning of freedom, peacetime uses of nuclear energy, and similar non-literary prose that comprises the bulk of many freshman anthologies. Do we English teachers believe that our students already read so much literature that in our English courses we can substitute for literature, matter from other fields? I think that the answer is obvious, and below I concentrate upon improving reading of literature and about literature.

The final issue is the extent to which visual aids, which are almost indispensable for the lower levels of education, are appropriate for the college level. I agree that there is a point of optimum exposure and a point of over-exposure of students to motivational devices, and in fact to dramatic teaching. I have therefore selected for this paper reading lessons that utilize motivational devices, in this case duplicated matter, but I recommend the lessons for freshmen, and not for upper classmen.

The lessons apply to improving the reading of three types of literary readings: literary criticism, short stories, and poetry.

I believe that every college freshman should become familiar with the world of literary criticism, including biography and bibliography. Freshmen may appropriately enter this literary world hand-in-hand with the teacher, but soon they should be able to participate in it independently. To help students rely less on me to explain their reading of literary criticism, I make suggestions as to how they can get more out of their reading of such exposition. I recommend that the students read the matter twice, first briskly to grasp the critic's main ideas, then more deliberately to supplement these main ideas. During the first reading the student considerably varies his attack, at times skimming and skipping, at times re-reading consecutive matter, at times looking ahead or back - in short, he adjusts his reading behavior at each moment according to his need at that moment to grasp the critic's main ideas. I suggest, furthermore, that the students look for three kinds of main ideas common in literary criticism: interpretations, judgments, and historical exposition - interpretations of content and related biographical influences, judgments as to the literary qualities of the work under review, and statements about the significance of the work or writer in historical perspective.

To implement the above suggestions, I use duplicated matter for lessons on detecting literary interpretation, judgment, and historical exposition. First, students study duplicated paragraphs, each of which is largely interpretation, judgment, or historical exposition. Then students study several paragraphs containing combinations of these three types of literary criticism. Next, since students tend to read more alertly when they study faults of inferior matter in contrast to qualities of models, I introduce duplicated examples of bad critical writing. This bad writing consists of matter that is mostly summary of a work without interpretation or judgment of the work, and the reverse, matter having numerous evaluations but inadequate supporting references to the book under review. Finally, to induce students to read critically, I use several duplicated samples of literary criticism containing obvious sentimental, stereotyped, and intemperate judgments.

Before I assign a series of short stories in a freshman course, I consider it necessary to conduct several lessons on reading this type of literature because of a problem that I myself create. I select short stories that are difficult. I do so in the belief that the students cannot relish the reading experience unless they are extended in a pursuit for meaning. There should be a hue and cry to ferret out concealed clues to meaning, like irony, symbolism, and casual use of significant details. The lessons are based upon duplicated matter that reproduces only three parts of a short story: the title, the first paragraph, and the last paragraph. Parts containing related clues to meaning are chosen for reproduction. Thus by reading a first and last paragraph consecutively, students readily discover repetition of phrasing that they might have completely overlooked if they had not read the last paragraph with the first in mind. In another instance, a common and hence not conspicuous word in the title of a story, and a seemingly casual use of a synonym of this word in the first paragraph, both become prophetic when students read the last paragraph and recall the title and first paragraph.

I try to give depth to the above short-story lesson by asking the students to deduce the omitted part of the story from the three excerpts. I permit students to speak up spontaneously in immediate reaction to each other's deductions, interrupting only when students make guesses not based on the three given parts of the story. Regardless of how far the surmised story departs from the actual story, by the very act of making deductions from the author's clues, the students identify themselves with the creator of the original story. When subsequently they read a short story they presumably will look for the art as well as for the narrative of the work.

As for lessons on improving the reading of poetry, I reproduce examples of bad as well as good poetry. Since students more readily detect the weaknesses of a poem when they are confident that the poem is bad, I select from newspapers and greeting cards the worst verses that I can find. The basic technique of the poetry lesson is first to ask the students, "What do you think of this poem, and why?" or "Is this a good or bad poem? Why?" I try to avoid attacking a poem by asking, "What is the meaning of this poem?" My reason is that if determining meaning is an end in itself rather than a means of supporting a judgment, students often cease exploring for comprehension of a poem when they have grasped its literal thought.

When students dig into a bad poem and their spade thuds against sentimentality, banality, and sterile language, they express disapproval quite readily, often as ridicule of the writer. It is too much to hope, however, that dislike of bad verses will induce liking of good poetry. In fact, a danger of contrived lessons on poetry is that they can cause students to read good poetry to judge it without enjoying it. To reduce this possibility I conduct another lesson using duplicated matter. I reproduce a number of very short verses, each of which expresses a metaphor. Some of these are Japanese Haiku; others are student efforts, both good and bad. Each verse is reproduced except for the omission of a word or phrase denoting one part of the metaphor - that is, either the object or the analogy. The basis of the deduction is to be truth of experience. Of course, truth alone does not make verse poetic, but if the truth is revealed freshly, as through a new experience, the verse is at least potentially poetic.

Below are some examples of metaphoric verses written by students on the topic "rain". The omitted title or phrase is to be deduced.

A. (   )*
Both eyes flooded with
Tears which are quickly swished dry
'Ere crying again.

This metaphor tells a truth so dramatically that the common working of a windshield wiper takes on the freshness of an uncommon function.

When the omitted word in the following metaphor is inferred, the verse indeed expresses a truth rather freshly, though admittedly the truth is tainted by artifice:

B. Washerwoman
Rough-fingered rain
Washes out (   )* of roof.

The following metaphor is pleasingly tinged with sentiment:

C. Rain, tear-stained and forlorn,
Flattens its nose against a (   )*

Finally, I offer here a metaphor that I must admit I dismissed as a "cute" lie, until later when comfortably indoors on a dismal rainy day, I was knifed by its truth.

D. Listen to the rain on the roof
Trying to get in (   ).*

In closing, I should like to say that the reading improvement lessons suggested above are recommended for regular courses, but not as basic lessons for programs of remedial reading. Remedial needs are too individual and too personal to be met fully by such classroom lessons.

*Answers: (A) Windshield Wiper, (B) sheets, (C) window pane, (D) out of the rain.

* * * *

IMPROVING READING IN THE LABORATORY

Martha J. Maxwell
University of Maryland

Many colleges and universities offer reading assistance to their students through a special reading laboratory. I am not sure how the term "laboratory" came to be associated with reading programs, since few resemble Webster's definition of a laboratory as "a room or building for scientific experimentation or research". Also I find little agreement as to the difference in functions between a reading laboratory and a reading clinic, although the latter term implies more intensive individual diagnostic and treatment services. The activities which are offered by college reading laboratories vary widely from institution to institution.

Some reading labs offer individual help exclusively, others give formal courses in reading improvement, while still others provide more or less informal group programs, and all offer some diagnostic testing. For our purposes, let us consider a reading laboratory, as a program that is less formal than a reading course and less remedial in nature than the services offered by a reading clinic.

In a recent survey of colleges and universities offering reading programs, Miller (1959) cites a trend which merits our attention: that is, the change in philosophy manifested by some institutions who have recently discontinued developmental reading programs. He notes that 13% of the schools had dropped programs in the past five years; yet he cites a general trend indicating increasing demand by students for reading help. One of the explanations he suggests for this decline in reading courses is the changing attitude of colleges as to their responsibility in helping the student become adjusted to college. Increased enrollments, coupled with more rigid selective admission screening, he feels, suggests a reluctance on the part of colleges to provide "remedial" help for the less able students. Other explanations he proposes include the costs of maintaining reading programs and the shortage of trained personnel to direct them.

Another current issue in the college reading field is the changing philosophy toward selecting students. As we have become more cognizant of the vital importance of student motivation in reading improvement, there has developed a growing tendency to turn from compulsory to voluntary programs. Ernest Jones's statement (1959) that "The selection of students for college and university reading programs should be entirely on a voluntary basis" aptly illustrates this viewpoint.

With these trends in mind, I would like to discuss with you a relatively recent development which I feel will be shaping our college reading programs more and more -- this is the Self-Help approach.

The Self-Help approach reflects the current zeit-geist which is manifested in other aspects of our culture by the do-it-yourself craze. In the educational field, the development of teaching machines and other types of programmed learning materials is providing tools and techniques by which the student can teach himself. In the reading field where we are faced with the dilemma of having ever increasing demands for our services by students on the one hand, and a shortage of trained personnel, on the other, we are facing the necessity of finding new and different techniques and approaches.

In the University of Maryland Reading and Study Skills Laboratory, we have been experimenting with the Self-Help Method this year. I should like to tell you about the background of our program, how we got involved with the self-help approach, and some of the results we have obtained.

Our reading lab is a division of the University of Maryland Counseling Center and has traditionally offered a voluntary, non-credit, non-fee program for any student in the University who desires to improve his basic learning skills. During the past five years, we have tried a number of different approaches in organizing and developing the reading program. Five years ago we had a semester-long program in which small groups of students (less than 10 persons) met bi-weekly with a counselor to discuss their study and reading problems and practice on skills. Although these groups began the semester with apparent enthusiasm, usually by the last quarter of the semester all but one or two students in each group had dropped out. We then tried limiting the program to 6 weeks' sessions offering 4 sessions per academic year. Although the number of students who remained in the program until the end increased, the attrition was still high. Next, we required all students entering the program to take a lengthy test battery and sectioned them on the basis of their test scores into one of four groups: reading, study skills, vocabulary, and a special "motivation" group - this latter was composed of students who scored in the upper quartile of the test battery and was conducted using a group therapy approach. One out of four of these motivation groups was successful in retaining students for six weeks, and also in reducing some of the hostility the students expressed toward their college instructors and toward being sectioned in this particular group. In all of the skills groups, students who remained for post-testing showed significant gains and favorable attitudes toward the program.

The following year, we discontinued the motivation group and offered specialized work in the three skills areas. Although group size was limited to 10 students, the counselors followed a prescribed lesson plan, presented techniques, gave the students practice on the skill areas and encouraged discussion. Although this procedure resulted in somewhat increased attendance, there was still a high drop-out rate ranging from 10% to 90%. Careful analysis of the attendance records failed to reveal any significant relations between the number of drop-outs, and type of group, counselor, size of group, materials, or methods used. However, we did establish the fact that students who remained in the program for the six-weeks period showed significant gains in their skills on the post-test battery.

Last summer when we realized that our staff would be limited to one person because we were unable to recruit a replacement for a counselor who left, and lacked experienced graduate assistant help, we were faced with the necessity of radically revising the whole program.

Members of our counseling center staff had conducted follow-up interviews with students who had dropped out of the reading lab program the previous semester. The information collected through these interviews was "eye-opening". One thing that was apparent from these interviews was the frequency with which students expressed the feeling that their needs were quite different from those of the other group members. Even when the group spent time on an activity which the student felt was important to him he would complain "but we didn't get enough work on skimming..." The interview data was further substantiated by a study made by Rollins of the personality characteristics of students who remained and those who dropped out of our program over a two year period. He concluded that remainers in general tended to be "easy-going, patient, moderate and undemanding people who tend to accept uncritically whatever is offered". Terminators, on the other hand, could be described as "impatient, intolerant, critical and demanding people who are likely to lose interest quickly in anything which is not seen as being of direct and immediate benefit to themselves." These conclusions were based on scores on the California Psychological Inventory, a personality test.

Thus, we were faced with a desire to provide more individualized help in reading and the other learning skills for more students with a greatly reduced staff.

As a result, we spent last summer planning and preparing a program in which the student might receive maximal help on his individual problems with minimal supervision by the counselor. This involved developing new materials and modifying available exercises so that they could be self-administering and self-scoring.

The objective of the self-help lab is to provide the motivated student with techniques and materials designed to help him improve his basic learning skills.

Individualized programs are offered in reading skills, study techniques, vocabulary, spelling, listening skills and note-taking skills. Each student works individually with his own materials, at his own level and at his own rate.

Each student entering the self-help RSSL program arranges an appointment with one of our counseling center staff for a 20 minute screening interview. During this interview, the counselor attempts to learn more about the student's problem and determine whether the lab or individual counseling would be the most appropriate service for him. In many cases, the student receives both individual counseling and enters the reading lab. The counselor also explains the nature of the lab program and stresses the importance of motivation and practice in the improvement of learning skills. The student is given a brochure describing the self-help program and the steps he must follow to enter. If the student agrees to enter the lab, then the counselor arranges for him to take the RSSL test battery.

The RSSL battery consists of the following tests: The Robinson Hall Reading Test on Russian History, the Brown-Holtzman Study Habits and Attitudes Inventory, The Coop-English form Pm (vocabulary and spelling sections), the SRA Reading for Understanding Placement Test and the RSSL Diagnostic Spelling Test. Scores on the University of Maryland freshman testing battery are also available. These include the Cooperative Reading Test and the ACE and various other achievement and personality measures.

When the student completes testing, he is sectioned for two lab periods per week. When he attends his first lab meeting, he is given his test results and discusses these with the counselor. He is given a packet of materials with his starting level indicated and sheets on which he will record his attendance and progress, and directions for using the materials. The counselor assists him getting started and encourages him to ask for help if and when he needs it. Once a student has started on a program, he may use the lab facilities at any time during the school day that he wishes, although the counselor is only available for consultation at specified hours.

Last semester 85% of the 98 RSSL students worked on reading skills. I would estimate that less than 10% of this group had the necessary basic verbal and comprehension skills or the confidence to begin working on speed reading without practice on comprehension and vocabulary skills. As a result, most students were encouraged to begin with Thurstone's SRA Reading for Understanding materials or workbook exercises on vocabulary and various comprehension skills prior to attempting to improve their speed. Interestingly enough, most students find that they complete the exercises more rapidly as they advance in these materials.

When the student attains a specified level of comprehension, then he may be shifted to skimming exercises, the SRA Rate and Power-builders and machine practice with the EDL Controlled Reader and/or accelerators. The Tach-X is used primarily for vocabulary building and spelling, with written exercises to be completed following his viewing the words. However, some students prefer to use the tachistoscope with phrases in an effort to increase their eye span. Use of the machines as well as other materials and methods is optional, and the reading counselor assists the student in finding the approach that will work best for him. All of the materials and machines are operated by the student. At the beginning of the program we found that the repair bills ran a bit high, but now by providing the student with both written instructions and a 3-minute demonstration, we find that he can operate the projectors effectively and with care.

A variety of work books, text books and mimeographed materials, etc. are available in the lab for the student's use. If he is motivated to practice on his own outside of the lab, he is encouraged to purchase an appropriate work book. Keys are provided for the student's use in grading and evaluating his own work.

Student response to the self-help has been enthusiastic. More students have applied for the program this year; many who are in the program have encouraged their friends to come, and students are spending more time in the lab and completing more work than was true of previous groups. Last semester 41% of the students spent more than 11 hours in the lab, compared to 17% in 1959-60. Inasmuch as a number of students entered the lab the last few weeks of the semester, we expect to average even higher attendance figures by the end of the year. Since attendance in a voluntary program may constitute one criterion of its effectiveness, these data suggest that the self-help approach is meeting students needs to a higher degree than our former methods.

To illustrate the range of student abilities in the lab, let me cite two brief cases. One student, a freshman in engineering, entered the lab last fall. His entrance test scores were so low (below the 13th percentile on U. of Md. norms) that his chances of remaining in the engineering curriculum were extremely remote. His reading comprehension at the beginning was at a sixth grade level and his speed score was 119 w.p.m. To make his academic future look even bleaker, he was working in the campus dining hall so that his study time was limited. He attended the lab faithfully all semester working on vocabulary, spelling and comprehension skills and earned a "C " academic average. Currently, he is reading college level material with ease, with speeds averaging around 450 w.p.m and carrying a "B" academic average.

A contrasting case was a junior majoring in history who wanted to improve his speed of reading. His test scores were all above the 95%ile except for reading speed. He attended the lab for just two weeks, increasing his reading speed on college level history material from 250 w.p.m. to an average of 885 w.p.m. with 80% comprehension. He too was motivated. At the end of two weeks, he announced that he had achieved his goal and was leaving the program.

Think for a moment what might happen if two students with such different abilities were enrolled in a traditional reading class.

Most educators pay "lip service" to the principle of individual differences, yet this is all too often ignored in the way in which courses are taught. In reading work, which involves one of life's most individualistic experiences, I wonder how much less we accomplish by trying to teach groups or classes. Even when reading students are sectioned in homogeneous groups, the range of differences increases rapidly as they begin to improve.

The self-help approach makes it possible to maximize individual gains in reading, increase student motivation, and gives the reading teacher an opportunity to develop a closer relationship with students and to gain a greater understanding of their needs and problems.

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IMPROVING READING AS A PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICE

Barbara Ann Becher
Fordham University

When I first accepted the invitation to talk about Reading as a Psychological Service, the topic appeared to be very specific, very clear, and very easy. However, the closer the deadline came and the more thinking that I did about the topic, the more general, the more vague, and the more difficult it seemed to be to expand such a title. I am sure that if I used this title as some sort of projective technique for each of you the interpretations would vary widely. Perhaps this is really an advantage of the title since it gives me a great deal of latitude in deciding just exactly what I will cover.

I have finally decided that I will handle the topic by discussing the coordination of Reading Improvement Programs within the structure and orientation of the Office of Psychological Services of Fordham University.

The Office of Psychological Services and its staff are a service organization and a part of the administration of the University. Since its opening on the Fordham Campus in 1954 and at the City Hall Division in 1955, the staff, its functions, and its student-clientele have grown by leaps and bounds. At present the professional staff consists of seven full-time psychologists, two part-time psychologists, one part-time speech-correctionist and one psychiatric consultant. This staff is committed to the principle that its functions must be integrated to the primary aims of the University, namely, the harmonious development of all the powers of the human being, physical, social, intellectual, aesthetic, and spiritual. The services of our office are regarded by ourselves and the University asan adjunct, but a necessary one, to the primary business of teaching. Therefore, we feel that our orientation permits us to deal, within the scope of our competencies, of course, with those areas which may deter the student from benefiting to the fullest extent from what the University and its faculty are attempting to "teach". Vocational disorientation; social, home, economic, emotional problems; speech, study, and reading deficiencies may all hamper students to the point where they do not benefit from what they are taught and do not function satisfactorily and efficiently within the framework of the University. Hence, our office has undertaken to provide educational and vocational guidance and testing, personal counseling, diagnostic testing, psychiatric consultation, reading and study skills programs, remedial speech, and job placement.

Reading and study skills programs, then, are a means to an end rather than an end in themselves. As we view these programs they are a means to several ends: first, they are geared toward improving reading to prevent student drop-outs and academic failures; to function better in the classroom and with his studies, through improving his reading and study skills; and, thirdly, these programs are employed to orient the students toward psychology, psychologists, and mental health with the firm belief that this will increase the student's tendency to seek professional services when faced with problems which hinder the achievement of University goals and when he could benefit from or demand the counseling, guidance or psychiatric assistance offered by the Office of Psychological Services. The third end is by no means the primary end of our reading improvement programs but, it is an end which we feel may be unique to the Fordham reading programs and, hence, it is with our use of improved reading programs as an orientation to psychological assistance that I will devote the rest of this discussion.

Before I go into this further, however, I imagine you would be interested in knowing what kinds of programs we offer and what materials we use. Both on the Campus and at the City Hall Division we teach two sections each semester of a course entitled Reading Improvement and Study Skills. (Most of college reading is studying and most of college studying is reading hence, we feel that the two cannot be separated into separate courses.) These classes meet two hours a week for a period of ten weeks and the enrollment is generally 15 to 30 students per section. The courses are all free, non-credit and voluntary for most of the students. A few students in each section are required to take the course by their Dean because of excessively poor reading performance as determined by the Cooperative English Test which is administered as a part of the freshmen testing program. Students are recruited for the programs from all classes via bulletin boards, student newspapers and letters sent by our office to freshmen who have checked reading or study problems on a short problem check list or who have scored below the 40th percentile on speed of reading comprehension on the Cooperative English Test. Most of the classes include one of the Harvard reading films, a pressure reading exercise which consists of subject material concerned with reading skills and, a discussion of the content of the pressure reading exercises.

The pressure reading exercises which we use have been written by one of our staff, Dr. Paul Centi. Classes are also devoted to critical reading, recognizing propaganda devices, taking notes, preparing for and taking examinations, and other study skills. In addition to these programs we also offer a five week summer College Skills Program for high school graduates who will be entering colleges the following September.

Now then, let us return to our use of these programs for psychological orientation. Aside from exposure to articles in magazines, newspapers and Sunday supplements as well as more or less derogatory jokes and cartoons, our University freshmen have seldom had any contact with psychologists before coming to college. They know little about the functions of a psychologist and even less about what use a psychologist can be to a college student. "Head shrinkers" are for the "crazy" and the "mentally ill" and the students are likely to look with suspicion on psychologists as well as their student-clients. They are even less likely to refer themselves to a psychologist when they are faced with problems which threaten their college careers. Reading improvement programs taught by psychologists who identify themselves to the students as psychologists are, at Fordham, one way of exposing our freshmen to psychologists as teachers, as average people, and as professional persons who are friendly, interesting, and approachable rather than frightening.

Besides the mere presence of a psychologist in the classroom, some of our course content deals with psychological subjects or is approached with a psychological orientation. I would like to give you a number of examples of this.

1. We supplement the Harvard reading film "Barzun on Tests" with a lengthy discussion on psy-

chological tests. We go into the various types of tests, including intelligence, achievement, aptitude, and personality tests, including the projective techniques. We discuss what the tests are like, the philosophy behind them, the advantages and limitations of each type of test, when they should and should not be used and what value they can be to an individual. We place particular emphasis on which group and individual tests we use with the students and point out the problems they may face in the next four years for which tests can prove beneficial. We encourage them to make an appointment with us to discuss their freshmen test results or to come in for vocational tests if they are not satisfied with their academic progress or if they are having difficulty in choosing a major. There are always several students who make appointments with us immediately following the class. Many come to us at a later date or refer their friends who are not in one of the reading programs.

2. Two of the short exercises devoted to identifying the main ideas of paragraphs are concerned with the drugs chlorpromazine, reserpine and mescaline. These paragraphs are supplemented with a discussion of the many psychiatric drugs in current use---when and why they should be used, what effects they produce and how. Some references are made to problems of Fordham students which have been alleviated or benefited through the application of psychiatric drugs along with counseling by one of our staff. In such discussions we try to convey the idea that prescribed psychiatric medication is no more of a crutch or a disgrace than an aspirin for a headache.

3. One of the paragraphs which we use for a lesson in critical reading describes an officer in

the Armed Forces who refuses to get to know the men in his command because he does not want to order his friends to die. This particular paragraph has never failed to prompt a very lively discussion of the pros and cons of this attitude from the point of view of both the officer and his men. It very naturally evolves into a discussion of the personality of the officer and from here into one on emotional maturity and immaturity.

4. A practice exercise in outlining and underlining which is given to the students as an outside assignment is drawn from a short Canadian pamphlet entitled "Understanding the Young Adult". This selection discusses the physical, mental, social and emotional changes occurring in the young adult. It also deals with parents, love and marriage, and vocations. The final portion deals with becoming mature and lists many qualities which a young man or woman is expected to develop if he or she is to be considered reasonably mature. When this assignment is reviewed in class the content of the selection is, of course, elaborated upon and discussed with the students. They are always particularly interested in the signs of maturity and how a college student may work toward and attain such maturity.

5. The practice exercise in scanning is entitled "The College-Level Retarded Reader with Emotional Difficulties". This selection points out that reading deficiencies at the college level may be due to the presence of emotional maladjustments. Students would, of course, be interested in knowing if this were true of themselves. Hence, the article goes on to indicate that emotional problems are generally found to be the basis of reading difficulties in students who do not show the expected improvement, are not able to keep pace with the group, or who fluctuate considerably in the reading program. More-

over, it is pointed out that students with emotional problems are often revealed by their behavior in class. They may be overly concerned with perfection; they may easily become discouraged and frustrated; they may react to their inability to progress by becoming aggressive, hostile, and critical, or by withdrawing or showing a general insecurity. In our discussion of this material we go one step further and indicate that in any classroom these same signs point to a probable emotional difficulty. This reading selection indicates also that while emotional problems may be the cause of reading deficiencies, it is also true that reading deficiencies may cause emotional problems or, the two may interact and the disabled reader may be caught in a vicious circle. In discussing this selection we also speak briefly of how emotional problems are worked out with children in play therapy and with adolescents and college students in face-to-face discussions.

6. It is a generally accepted fact that concentration difficulties which are often severe and/or disturbing to the student may be the first sign of the presence of emotional disturbance in this age group. Therefore, when study problems are discussed, practical ways of maintaining concentration are suggested but the students are also made aware of the fact that worries and problems in social, sexual, moral, family and other non-academic areas may interfere with the ability to concentrate on studies. They are encouraged to make an appointment to see us if attention and concentration difficulties persist.

7. Debilitating fears of examinations are described to the students as symptomatic of emotional problems which are frequently uncomplicated and amenable to short-term counseling.

8. Study techniques are given more meaning by pointing to their basis in the results of traditional

learning experiments. It is in connection with this discussion that we attempt to assist the students to see a psychologist as a research oriented person who is interested in all aspects of human behavior---normal as well as abnormal; how most people normally learn as well as why some people have difficulty in learning.

9. In our over-all approach to the students we attempt to introduce humor and flexibility and we are non-directive rather than authoritarian. We view the students as developing individuals with a capacity to think, to reason, and to feel. We like and respect the students and we want them to know this. Hence, we always display a readiness and eagerness to hear their opinions and a sincere interest in knowing how they feel about something as well as how they think about things. We try not to underplay the importance of emotions and we do try to shake the students' familiar mistaken notion that development of the intellect is all important and emotions are best suppressed.

10. Finally, we use our contact with the students in the reading programs to identify for ourselves those individuals whose academic performance may be hampered by the presence of psychological problems.

In summary, I would like to say that the improvement of reading and study skills is the primary aim of our reading programs but what I have just presented are ten of the ways in which we at Fordham make use of our reading programs for another aim namely, to orient the students toward psychology, psychologists, and mental health without failing to improve their study habits and their reading speed and comprehension. Many of the students whom we have first met through our reading classes have later referred themselves to the Office of Psychological Services with personal problems which were interfering with their attainment of the goals of the University. We feel that without this contact these students may never have sought professional psychological assistance. Through these students we believe that we have reached hundreds of other students and will continue to reach many more. We have some evidence to indicate that we are not mistaken in this belief. A Student Evaluation Questionnaire which we sent last summer to students who had been seen in our office within the last few years for test interpretations, guidance, and counseling indicated that 85 per cent of the students we had seen were self-referred. This survey also told us that 40 per cent of the students who had responded to our questionnaire had referred their friends to us and 96 per cent of the students said that if the occasion arose they would refer their friends to us.

There are still many students who are failing to achieve University goals because of psychological, personal, and emotional difficulties and whom we have still failed to reach. However, we do believe that our reading programs have helped us to reach and assist many students to achieve these same goals.

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ROLE PLAYING AS AN AID IN IMPROVING READING ABILITY AND EMPATHY

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At a professional meeting, if it can be said there exists an over-riding question from the group as a whole, it might simply be, "What is new?" After having been exposed to a number of so-called 'new' approaches, the merits of the methods presented must be critically analyzed and compared with previous or current techniques which may be similar. This would suggest varying methods of conducting evaluations.

This report pertains to research conducted by Dr. Sylvia Heimbach. The approach (in this instance, role-playing) is not 'new'. However, the combination of role-playing as an aid in improving reading ability is an interesting and certainly a creditable innovation.

PROBLEM UNDER INVESTIGATION

A basic assumption relative to role-playing was that it allowed for spontaneity, creativity, and sharper perception for participants--while reducing constraint. It is essential that the distinction between role-playing and role-taking be understood. Role-playing is considered by Moreno as being an experimental method of learning which facilitates the executing of various roles in a suitable and unconstraining manner. Role-taking, by contrast, is the executing of clearly defined and structured roles and does not allow for altering these roles.

This study was initiated to determine whether attempts to provide insight pertaining to emphatic processes would ultimately improve reading ability. The subjects were in the tenth and eleventh grades. The experimental groups received training directed at improving role-playing. The control group spent equivalent time reading in the school library.

The procedure followed with the experimental groups were intended to impinge upon as many senses as possible, with the emphasis upon understanding characters in the materials rather than judging them.

The Nelson Reading Test, The Nelson-Denny Reading Test and an empathy questionnaire were utilized as criteria to measure progress.

Nature of the Experiment

The procedures used with the control and experimental groups were varied in the following respects:

Control Groups	Experimental Groups
1. Greeted impersonally. Treated with detachment.	1. Friendly, warm approach with direct personal interaction.
2. Formal attitude.	2. An informal relaxed atmosphere with firmness.
3. Dogmatic and brusque approach.	3. Leisurely pace, but consistent with performance. All work was completed and checked.
4. Little individual attention. Emphasis on group conformity.	4. Individualized instruction. Allowance for individual differences. Patience with individual shortcomings.
5. No democratic planning. Work was assigned as given, with minimum motivation.	5. Democratic planning. Group cooperation in selecting from alternative choices. Group initiation of units encouraged.
6. Discussion limited. Class work was primarily giving specific answers to specific questions.	6. Assignments were worked out together in informal groups.

7. Teaching materials were identical with experimental group. With the control group the experimenter went through the motions without any personal involvement, keeping to a minimum any interaction with the student.	7. There was extensive use of dramatization, both improvised and prepared.
8. Plays were read through at seats, summarized in notebooks, and briefly discussed only when questions were raised.	8. Imaginative identification. All senses were called into play.

The materials, consisting of plays, stories and career pamphlets, were socially oriented and dealt with situations of interest to teen-agers.

Some of the titles included:

Boy Dates Girl
Blind Date
Going Steady Problems
Diet for Losing Weight
Prettiest Girl at the Dance
Seven Parts of a Ball Team
Personality Pays
You, Incorporated

With the experimental group, attempts were made to develop social sensitivity. The author states:

"In literature, both stories and plays were approached in terms of the relationships between the characters. Their motivations were extensively analyzed, scenes improvised to bring them to life, and their reactions criticized in terms of the kind of people they were. Plays were dramatized as fully as possible, after initial character motivation. They were followed with discussions of the central problem and related to similar problems in the student's own experience. The pivotal questions were: "How does this character feel?", "What makes him act this way?", "Is it right or wrong?" "What should be done to make it better?", "How are you like this person?", "How are you different?"

FINDINGS

An analysis of the results of this study indicated conclusively the effectiveness of training in role-playing. Role-playing as a teaching aid can increase emphatic participation and materially aid in improving reading ability by increasing the power to interpret symbolic meaning on both verbal and non-verbal levels.

DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The utilization of role-playing to improve empathy and ultimately positively influence reading ability appears to be the logical extension of and amplification of motivational factors adhered to in what Betts terms a Directed Reading Activity. This similarity is clearly evident when we examine the aspects of a Directed Reading Activity. A Directed Reading Activity includes a readiness period which involves:

1. Insuring an adequate background of experience
2. Developing working concepts
3. Motivating interest and establishing purposes for reading

Following silent reading, word-recognition skills and comprehension factors receive attention. Students then engage in silent and oral re-reading for specific purposes. The culmination of a Directed Reading Activity involves follow-up activities. These follow-up activities might include study-type activities, games, extended reading, dramatization of stories or presentation of plays.

Role-playing viewed in the perspective here presented is assumed to be one of many culminating activities which may be utilized to promote reading ability. The value of role-playing must certainly be recognized and even given priority as a technique to improve reading ability.

However, the use of role-playing should not be considered a panacea for the improvement of all reading.

As an intensive technique it would be most advantageous to use role-playing in a literature course or one socially oriented rather than in a course which is primarily concerned with factual content (science, math).

Role-playing would have particular value in a remedial or corrective reading situation as an intensive technique.

We can suspect that role-playing would be appropriately used in the intermediate and secondary grades. At a college level role-playing would perhaps be considered a welcome adjunct to methods presently in use. We could safely assume that as we progress through the grades—the quality of materials used will become more important than sheer quantity.

The challenge to refine instruments which will identify individuals who are deficient in specific reading skills rests squarely with reading personnel—whether associated with the classroom, reading laboratory, or clinics.

As techniques and methods are demonstrated to be effective in improving reading ability *per se* further support is given to the view that the road to reading improvement is indeed wide and versatile. We have not reached the level of sophistication which would allow us to harbor the idea that methodology and technique offer only a narrow framework within which we can operate.

Role-playing, although a limited device, substantiates the multidimensional approach to improving reading ability.

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READING ACHIEVEMENT AND SOCIAL-CULTURAL CONDITIONING

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The enigma in reading disability as suggested by the ratio of four boys to one girl has been investigated by a number of researchers with few positive findings reported. One of the more recent related research reports (1) indicates that if a boy contracts measles about the age of two he is likely to have a reading problem. We might conjecture that since measles is known to attack the nervous system, some effect on the functions of the brain takes place. This theory would be supported by the research of Eysenck (2) and Stephen (3) who have indicated that brain damaged children are less conditionable, therefore, less able to learn. Unfortunately, since measles before the age of two does not affect the female child in regard to reading, we are led to believe that the male child's brain is more easily damaged by such diseases, or some other factor plays a part which, as yet, has not been uncovered.

Research reported in the field of differential psychology (4) indicates that at all ages, the female shows more "viability" or capacity to maintain life, than does the male. Prenatal and infant deaths are more common among boys. Although 20% to 50% more boys are conceived, only 5% to 6% more boys than girls are born. Thus, even before birth, death has already taken a much greater toll from the male sex. Throughout life, the male appears to be biologically more vulnerable in many ways. He is more susceptible to infection and is more often afflicted with physical defects. This viability and the physical disorders apparently are accounted for by genetic inheritance.

The wealth of such data available permits acceptance of the conclusion that the male is more susceptible to disease and more prone to be affected by diseases, such as measles, which affect the central nervous system. The effects of measles on cerebral functions may be theorized to be of some destructive nature, some sort of brain damage results which in turn affects the male child's ability to learn to read. Brain damage, according to Eysenck, (2) tends to make people more extroverted and concomitantly, less conditionable. We know that brain-injured childeren tend to have poor educational attainments in relation to intelligence. We know that the brain-injured child has, depending on the severity of his injury, difficulties in learning which require multi-modal approaches to instruction. The relatively mild brain damage which may result from a measles attack seemingly affects the conditionability of the child, his receptivity to learning. In effect, the child who is affected by such disease moves along the continuum toward a more extroverted characteristic, which personality characteristic has been associated with lowered conditionability.

If this reasoning is valid, we must assume that parents of children who contract such diseases will see shifts in personality, noted in observable behavior. At this point, remedial procedures - deliberate attempts to encourage conditionability - that is, to encourage more introverted behavior ought to be instituted. A difficulty in recommending such procedures is reflected in the social-cultural connotation of femininity associated with the introverted individual and with the solitary task of reading.

Investigating this enigma from another aspect, a study of social-cultural influences and reading, which was reported in the 1960 Summer issue of the Journal of Developmental Reading, was conducted to investigate contributing factors to retardation in reading found in boys. It was hypothesized that the degree of reading achievement was related to attitudes concerning its feminine-masculine qualities which were developed by social or cultural environments. The specific purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between a son's attitude toward reading in terms of its being mostly masculine or mostly feminine activity, and his reading abilities, as well as to determine the degree a boy's attitude was related to his father's attitude. It was reported that a small variance was noted in the father and son responses on the masculinity or femininity of reading when analyzed according to the son's curriculum placement, academic or vocational, and that a greater number of sons classified reading as a mostly feminine activity than did their fathers. However, the large majority of both sons and fathers indicated they believed reading was a mostly feminine activity. 81% of the total number of boys and 72% of the total number of fathers classified reading as a mostly feminine activity.

The results of the investigation indicated that in the populations studied, members of the male sex generally viewed reading as a mostly feminine activity and this attitude exerted some influence on a boy's reading ability. The boy's attitude in turn was to a varying extent related to his father's attitude and showed greatest relationship when a boy was in the vocational curriculum.

The hypothesis that achievement in reading is to some extent a reflection of some social-cultural influences appeared to have been substantiated by the results of this investigation.

Similarly, it has been recognized by psychiatrists that learning of academic subjects may be repudiated because of its association with masculinity or femininity. Oberndorf (5) points out that the development of intellectual precocity or psychogenic stupidity may be caused by the choice of identification (superego formation) with the intellectual attributes of one of the parents. "Sometimes," he notes, "the person has been rebuffed and emotionally traumatized by the stupid parent of the same sex and so flees to an identification with the thinking parent of the opposite sex." On the other hand, in a specific family, Pearson adds, (6) "if the mother is very interested in learning while the father is indifferent, the boy may come to regard the desire to learn academic subjects as a feminine attribute. In this way the desire to learn becomes connected with the passive-receptive feminine desires which he dreads lest their gratification result in castration. As a result such a desire has to be repudiated".

The above quotations can easily serve (as the model) to demonstrate how reading efficiency and some reading problems are undoubtedly affected by the femininity aura which surrounds the reading facet of lanugage. Apparently, however, we ought also to see some of this same aura attached to other school tasks if the psychiatric workers are to be believed. The effects of the association in a student's mind between his sex and the sex of the parent who is most interested in learning should in theory, form the basis of many more learning disabilities than educators are aware of at present.

The investigation of attitudes toward reading held by boys and their fathers which was referred to earlier permitted the collection of data on the attitudes of boys and their parents toward another facet of language, writing, as well as on their attitudes toward studying. Analysis of data on the latter area it was believed might delimit areas for further investigation as well as provide information which might reinforce the previous findings that educational achievement is influenced by social-cultural conditioning factors.

The results of this investigation indicated that 57% of the boys thought studying a mostly feminine activity. We are led to the conclusion that studying (which necessarily includes reading) is viewed in a more favorable light, one associated less with negative connotations. The correlation between the fathers' and sons' attitudes on the femininity-masculinity of studying was found to be .57, indicating the general agreement between the groups and lending further support to the hypothesis that fathers of 11th grade boys do consciously or unconsciously affect the attitudes of their sons.

It is probably also true, let me hasten to add, that both fathers' and sons' attitudes may be influenced by the general stereotype view that reading and, to a lesser extent, studying owing to vocational and career pressures is not something a "real boy does". The influence of the mother figure at this stage appears slight, with the relationship indicated as insignificant.

The attitude as reported here apparently finds its counterpart in the elementary schools as noted by the observations of Muriel Langman. (7) To what degree this attitude exists is being investigated by two researchers and we may expect to see results on this in due course. However, Henderson, (8) who conducted research on the relationship of the adolescent son's identification with his father and on father-son interest similarity, reports that such similarity and identification exists at the 12th grade level but does not appear to exist at the junior high level. Mussen and Distler (9) in the primary grades found that this identification existed and the masculine identification of sons was most significantly related to the intensity of the father-son relationship. Other researchers bear out these findings and we may conclude that fruitful research - that is, research on this problem of attitudes and reading, may be conducted at the primary level but that during pubescent period, the period when the boy is struggling to achieve an adequate sex role, such research would be inconclusive.

The conclusion that fathers generally may be influencing negative behavior on the part of their sons toward a skill which has been shown to be of importance to academic success is a reasonable one. It might be pointed out that this research evidence is supported by example of this attitude available elsewhere. For example, in a publication called *Teen-agers,* the author included a cartoon-type presentation to show stereotyped views of what "real boys" and "real girls" are thought to be like. They indicate that boys according to this stereotype are good athletes; never show emotions; scorn such activities such as music, art, and reading; and are tall, strong and forceful. The inclusion of reading as a scorned activity has implications for parents and educators since the attitude appears to exert some influence on the thinking activities of boys. That it exerts some influence in the general American population also appears difficult to question.

A cartoon from one of the country's newspapers is suggestive of this influence and the stereotype. This cartoon shows a boy of about nine sitting in an easy chair with an opened book on his lap in which he had evidently been engrossed. The boy's father stands behind him carrying a wealth of baseball equipment and has apparently asked his son to go outside to play baseball and has been turned down. The tenor of his remarks permits this conclusion since he is quoted as saying, "What do you mean you wanta read your book instead? Are you sick or something?"

The national cultural emphasis on developing positive attitudes toward various sports to the detriment of developing positive attitudes toward reading is suggested in this cartoon and is an example of the wealth of information available which illustrates the method by which social and cultural conditioning of negative attitudes are developed. The statement of a college sophomore, "Maybe the reason boys don't read as well as girls is because reading is for girls", is a typical comment rather than the exception to the rule.

As can be seen in these illustrations and in the research described, the relative inefficiency in reading which has been observed is to some extent tied to the real values parents place on reading rather than to what they say are the values. Since positive identification of learning and reading with masculine endeavor appears necessary, the male parent with male children has the specific responsibility to set the stage by his own example for the establishment of appropriate attitudes.

The establishment of motivation to read and to learn cannot be expected to come about spontaneously. It is established and nourished by the values ascribed to the task by the actions and statements of parents peers, teachers. Certainly if we believe that this attitude concerning reading needs to be modified, the pubescent period seems to be a period wherein much positive conditioning; that is, teaching, development of positive attitudes, could be achieved. The promotion of masculine identification with reading in the early formative years (birth to five years of age) is demanded.

We are to some extent led to believe that part of our effort must necessarily be devoted toward the development of a more introverted personality, since the degree of conditionability - that is, the degree to which a child is receptive to learning, appears to be related to the degree of introversion which marks an individual. The theory of Eysenck, the work of pharmacologists, the effect theorized by Smith and Carrigan on synaptic transmission may well be related. Some clues to the procedures involved in modifying negative attitudes may have been adumbrated by the work of Heimback.(11) Certainly much research and experimentation as well as much creative thought needs to be given to the solution of these problems.

The attention given here to two aspects of the enigma suggests the multi-dimensional nature and the complexity of relationships of reading achievement. No panacea-like solutions to these related problems are postulated.

(1) Wagenheim, Lillian, Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1959, Vol. 29 pages 102-9.

(2) Eysenck, H. J., The Dynamics of Anxiety and Hysteria, New York: Praeger, 1957.

(3) Stephen, R., "Cerebral Palsy and Mental Defect", in Clarke and Clarke, Mental Deficiency, London: Methuem, 1958.

(4) Anastasi and Foley, Differential Psychology, New York: Macmillan, 1953, pages 634 & following.

(5) Oberndorf, C. P., "The Feeling of Stupidity", *International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 1939, page 20.

(6) Pearson, Gerald, *Psychoanalysis and the Education of the Child*, New York: Norton and Company, 1954, pages 65-66.

(7) *Reading Teacher*, January, 1961, page 212.

(8) Henderson, Harold L.; Relationships between interest of fathers and sons and son's identification with fathers: The Relationship of the Adolescent sons' identification with his father to father-son interest similarity as measured by the Strong Vocation Interest Blank.
Dissertation Abstracts; 1958, 19 361-62.

(9) Mussen and Distler, "Maculinity, Identification and father-son relationship", *Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology*, 1959, November 59, Vol. 59, pages 350-56.

(10) Scott, Foresman, 1955, page 94.

(11) As reported in this meeting.

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PSYCHOTHERAPEUTIC CORRELATES TO THE TEACHING OF READING

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An Ambiguous Role

The role of the reading specialist is indeed an ambiguous one. The College Reading Association Proceedings reflect the diverse backgrounds and purposes of specialists in this area. A composite college reading person would emerge from this conference as part educator, part English instructor, and part psychologist.

An equivocal aspect of college reading is the concern with a primarily developmental focus as opposed to a corrective or remedial one. Although most reading specialists would emphasize the developmental function as their intrinsic role, they nevertheless are called upon to render corrective services. While we attempt to develop the reading-study skills of our achieving students, we must administer to the non-achieving readers in academic difficulty. When confronted with these corrective cases we frequently find pronounced symptoms of emotional maladjustment.

A further contribution to our already ambiguous role is the psychotherapeutic consideration. Hyperdistractability, concentration difficulties, erratic study techniques, and lack of persistence frequently accompany complaints of poor comprehension and limited rate of reading. When one observes the intellectual inefficiency, disorganizing emotions, and self-defeating behavior of failing students, psychotherapeutic factors present a further complication of the reading specialist's role.

A Therapeutic Role

While most reading specialists are not trained psychotherapists, they may act therapeutically within their professional role. The types of personal problems presented by many college students can be approached through a therapeutic reading program. This is not to say that the reading specialist need act as a therapist. Although the relationship between the learning situation and the therapy situation is at times quite close, a distinction should be made to maintain the integrity of each. Perry and Estes (1) point out that psychotherapy is a special form of educational practice;

> The psychotherapeutic role is not historically an offspring of pedagogy, but whether the psychotherapist calls his goal of change within the client "cure", "symptom-remission," "adjustment," "integration," "normality," "emotional maturity," or "growth," his sole medium must be his client's learning processes. Since the therapist or psychological counselor acts as a mediator or facilitator of this learning, his profession is properly considered a special and recent form of educational practice.

Dr. Robert Harper (2) in his book on psychotherapy, states that if an agreement is made between the educator and student that their goal is the substitution of desirable patterns of behavior for disturbed thoughts, feelings, or actions, the education has become psychotherapy, the educator is then a therapist, and the student has become a patient. From the reading specialist's point of view, a student should be referred to a psychotherapist when such an agreement of therapeutic goal is indicated.

Frequently the question presents itself as to whether a student should enroll in a therapeutic reading program or be referred for psychotherapy. Generally the maladjusted student profits best from concurrent reading help and psychotherapy. If the student is too disturbed to profit from a reading program he should be referred for psychotherapy with the recommendation for reading help to be initiated at the discretion of the therapist. The third possibility is for psychotherapy to be recommended after reading instruction. This course of action is indicated when the degree of maladjustment is uncertain or the student is resistant to accepting referral. Regardless of the decision, the initial contact with a student has many therapeutic implications for the reading specialist.

Intake And Diagnostic Situation

Several correlates to traditional psychotherapy exist in the initial phase of the reading specialist-student relationship. With the awareness that many come to the reading service at a relatively critical point in their college careers, the question presents itself as to why at this particular time the student is seeking help. The reading specialist must clarify the student's motivation for help at the very outset.

The following illustration of a presenting problem points up the importance of being sensitive to motivational considerations. It is taken from "An Introduction to Therapeutic Counseling" by E. H. Porter, Jr. (3)

> "I came today particularly because it was precipitated by a talk with my adviser. I'm in the School of Education. And the precipitating factor is my adjustment academically. And I think there are many factors involved in it; but that is why I came today, because he indicated so many things are dependent upon good grades, so to speak, that I thought I had better do something about it to help me along. And this is my second quarter here and I think I am still in the process of adjusting to the "great" institution. And I didn't do too badly last quarter, but it wasn't as well as I used to do. This is my fourth year of school. And, however, I felt I would do better this quarter, but I'm not, and I'm not studying at all. I feel - I thought I knew myself and my capacities. I feel that I'm not doing as well as I could. I think I know just about how far I can go, but

> I'm not doing as well as I should be able to. And it is so important now for anything and everything I do within the next few years. And I'd like some help; perhaps in helping me in my study habits particularly, you can help me get rid of what's blocking me and all."

The student's highly intellectualized, anxiety laden statement reveals the complexity of motivational factors operating in those that seek help. Although the disposition of such a student cannot be decided on such limited information, certain speculations can be made. The invitation to help with the study habits, if accepted, presupposes that the reading specialist can "help me to get rid of what's blocking me and all." The student appears to be ambivalent about exploring problems in the personal adjustments area although this may well be his major concern. He may, at the same time have a deficit in readin-study skills; he states that he is not applying those he has. Further interviewing and perhaps testing will be necessary for the reading specialist and student to come to some understanding as to the best course of action to take.

Within the brief scope of this paper a few of the therapeutic considerations may be explored. These should be kept in mind when dealing with students such as the one discussed above.

I. The reading specialist can help the student to overcome his resistance to facing problems in personal adjustment. If it appears that the student can best be helped by a psychotherapist, then resistance should be dealt with only to the degree necessary for acceptance of the referral. Resistance is to be expected in people with difficulties; the denial, rationalization, withdrawal, etc. protects them from the pain engendered in facing one's problems. Corrective reading involves overcoming resistance to changing one's reading habits, as inefficient as they may be. Students are frequently found who are reluctant to give up complex patterns of reading behavior established over the course of many years.

Test results can be put to good use in helping the student overcome his resistances. In the above mentioned case, the student may be encouraged to look towards the personality area when the results of testing reveals a high degree of reading-study skills. The results of testing in the intellectual area can help straighten out misconceptions concerning endowment. Students resist help in the reading area, often because they feel intellectually limited and afraid to risk failure in a corrective program.

Overcoming resistances is as important to the reading specialist as it is to the therapist. Resistances are perhaps most pronounced at onset of the reading specialist-student relationship. They continue to crop up at different times during the instructional program. They must be dealt with as they become apparent.

II. The reading specialist can assist the student by helping him to clarify his motivation. Clarification of motivation is directly related to overcoming resistance. The fact that a student has presented himself at a reading service is not sufficient reason to assume that he is essentially in need of reading help. The motivation is relatively clear in the probation student who is told to get reading help or withdraw from the college. It is more obscure in the deteriorating obsessive student who seeks reading help as a part of his self-improvement defense pattern.

When a college senior applied for reading help, he stated that he had a reading problem of some duraion. He had nevertheless achieved fairly high grades and recently had been accepted by a graduate school. He was now anticipating a great deal of difficulty in his future professional program and was reluctant to enter graduate training. As it turned out, this student's father had placed a great deal of stress on his entering this profession and the student had other ambitions. He was helped to clarify his motivation for the reading program as reluctance to enter a graduate program that makes demands on academic skills that the student did not possess, and what is more important, did not care to possess. There was a considerable lessening of anxiety as the student came to accept that his problem was essentially one of vocational adjustment and parent-son relationship.

The reading specialist who has helped the anxious disorganized student to clarify his motivations and reach a decision as to how to solve his problems, will see a lessening of anxiety and the beginning of adjustive behavior patterns.

III. The reading specialist must at times offer support to students who seek his help. The student mentioned under point II required some encouragement before he would accept referral to a counseling psychologist. Even when this seemed to him the most appropriate course of action, he was reluctant to accept it. He felt guilty at the prospect of exploring his own interests and vocational goals because he saw himself betraying his father's ambitions for him. Some students cannot tolerate the anxiety that attends exploration of their problems without depending to some degree on some authority. Although it is obviously the student who must formulate plans and carry them through, support is sometimes necessary to bring about the initiative to solve problems.

Support should take the form of building the student's confidence in his own ability to face his problems, formulate plans, and act on them. It is inherent in the process of reviewing and summarizing the student's strengths which are seen in his past successes and in the assets revealed in diagnostic testing. It is fostered by leaving the decision as to appropriate source of help with the student. Persuasion and advice-giving are the antithesis of support in that they undermine the student's freedom and initiative to the the responsibility for his own problems and their solution.

Many more therapeutic techniques can be employed in the first contacts with a student. Resolving resistances, clarification of motivations, and providing support are perhaps the most apparent. It cannot be overemphasized that once the student has decided to enroll in a reading program, the reading specialist should refrain from implying that the problems stem from any remote imponderable causes, is based on disease, or upon any consideration not amenable to mastery. Had this been the case, the reading specialist would have referred the case appropriately to a personality specialist.

Instructional Situation

There is much opportunity in the reading instruction proper to act therapeutically with disturbed students. The student may or may not be in concurrent counseling or psychotherapy; the goals of reading instruction should include therapeutic considerations. The trend in college reading is towards considering the student as an individual with a unique personality and a unique response to his reading-study skill difficulties. Robert Roth (4) states the case succinctly:

Reading programs which concentrate wholly upon class gains in speed and comprehension often fail to meet the needs of those students who require help. One important reason for this failure is that few programs have been designed with a clear understanding of the complex nature and wide variety of personal response to reading instruction. What needs to be better understood is the great importance of the student's attitude toward himself (1) as a person, (2) as a reader, and (3) as a student. Unless the relationship is understood, and unless reading programs are made flexible enough to accommodate to the varieties of personal response, many handicapped readers may emerge from reading training programs with reinforced difficulties, with strengthened incapacities.

There has been a tendency in medicine and psychology to develop "cookbook" solutions. It is currently evident in attempts to program symptoms and increase diagnostic efficiency and in the research with the MMPI to categorize people according to formulas applied to profiles. It would no doubt prove helpful to the reading teacher to have at his finger tips a prescribed program for each personality type and problem. Donald E. P. Smith (5) makes this prediction based on some of his research. His work suggests that some personalities profit best from directive teaching while others fare better in a non-directive program. Until such relationships have been worked out more completely, the reading specialist must rely on his knowledge of learning principles, instructional techniques, and group interaction to provide a therapeutic reading program for his students.

Some generalizations can be made with regard to therapeutic reading instruction.

I. The teacher-student relationship is perhaps most important. The goal of psychotherapy in most disciplines is the therapist-patient relationship itself. Identification of the student with the teacher can help the student to commit himself to his academic role. This identification is possible only if the teacher is a central part of the program. The teacher should serve as an example of a flexible well organized, and purposeful person who is interested in developing similar qualities in his students. A student cannot find such identification with a machine, or a series of exercises.

A sincere respect for the student's assets and a realistic understanding of his liabilities will make for trust in the relationship. The relationship provides a context in which problems can be brought out and dealt with effectively.

II. The general emotional climate of a reading program should provide the freedom for interaction that is a prerequisite for any group psychotherapy program. Many students with academic difficulties are isolated in the sense that they cannot interact freely with students whom they perceive as more successful or fortunate. Opportunities to work through these problems of perspective in social interaction are multitudinous. By sensitive and flexible grouping and discussion leading, attitudes towards competition, cooperation, and responsibility can also be worked through.

III. The use of a wide range and variety of instructional materials in both group and individual situations is necessary if reading instruction is to be personally meaningful to the student. Aside from the fact that each subject matter area has its relatively unique pull for certain thinking skills and that transfer of skills must be taught, negative attitudes towards specific subjects matter areas can be elicited and dealt with with stimulating materials. Direct help in the student's own texts can be especially valuable in simulating motivation to cope with academic problems.

IV. The reading program should be so structured that the student is active and involved in all its phases. The student should be active in relation to the group, to the instructor, and to the material. The problems of many can be viewed as motivational. Students in academic difficulty have not been able to commit themselves to an academic role, to a vocational choice, to the responsibilities of maturity. Much of their behavior is designed to maintain self-concepts that are not compatible with success in college or in their careers. Only if the student is active will he be able to achieve successes. Successful attempts in coping with his academic difficulties can go far towards changing a self-defeating picture into a confident adjustive one.

V. In conclusion I would like to emphasize those points made by Dr. Marjorie S. Johnson (6) at the Institute on Reading Disabilities at Temple University in 1957. We must see that (1) our students are truly motivated to learn; (2) that they are free to learn because they are free to react to situations, to have opinions and express them, to see the situation changed by their reactions and learnings; (3) that their learnin leads to real accomplishment and satisfaction; (4) that the student must develop high standards for his own performance. Finally, we must be constant observers of our students, recognize their problems, help them solve those we are prepared to handle, and refer them for expert help with those we are not prepared to handle.

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PROBLEMS IN SPEED READING

Lawrence Charry
Temple University

My assignment on this program is to talk about problems in speed reading. I expect to present these problems mainly within the framework of my own experience in the teaching of reading to individuals, most of whom were interested in increasing their comprehension and rate of reading of difficult and detailed materials. I have encountered the usual groups that most instructors teach, including executives, engineers, teachers and law students, as well as doctors, dentists and lawyers.

With the law school students, I had the feeling that I was able to make permenent gains of about 50 to 100 words a minute on legal materials. Since their reading level on these materials actually ranged from 75 to 200 words a minute, this, to me, was an impressive figure in terms of percentage of gain, and in terms of the total time that they spent in studying per week.

However, these gains seem infinitesimal in view of two nespaper clippings that have come to my attention recently. The first is an advertisement in the Sunday section of the New York Times that tells about a reading course that produces speeds up to 2,500 words a minute.

The second is a feature article appearing in the New York Daily News on April 15, 1961. It states: "Washington, a great town for frivolous fads, is currently caught up in a quasi-educational craze-learning to read fast and furiously."

The article continues in much the same vein. President Kennedy's 1,200 word per minute speed is considered definitely second rate. Senator Talmadge is quoted as saying: "but there was a 14 year old in my class who could read 52,000 words a minute." This is the direct quotation, but there must have been a mistake. Someone must have carelessly (or frivolously) added an extra zero. It probably should have read 5,200 and not 52,000.

Senator William Proxmire is one of the Senate's leading speed readers. His "fastest reading speed 'with real comprehension' is 20,000 words per minute." According to the author of the News article, "he conceded that to really comprehend and retain highly technical matter, he had to slow his reading rate down to 'about 1,200 words a minute'." Proxmire indicated that he had read 20 books since March 26th. The advocates of versatility and shifting gears will be happy to know that his diet consisted of such varied fare as Jane Austen, Arnold Toynbee, and Barry Goldwater.

The first problem, then, concerns the validity of the rates of reading claimed and the disparity between the figures of 200 to 250 words per minute and 1,200 words per minute for highly technical matter.

Problem Number Two is: why are we calling this a symposium in "speed reading"? This name has gone out of style. In the early 1950's speed reading was the rage. The authoritative article on it appeared in the Harvard Business Review about that time. At Temple University, Dr. Betts set up the program in speed reading for industry presented jointly by the Reading Clinic and the Management Service Division. I joined this program in 1954. To change the emphasis, a short time later, we dropped the word "speed" and called our program "Reading for Industry". Other programs changed their names also; many seemed to prefer "efficient reading" or "effective reading" or "read faster, better."

Now, are we again changing our emphasis? Does this mean that speed is to be considered as an entity in itself? Haven't we found that the way to work on speed is to concentrate on comprehension? Greater facility in comprehension was what brought about the gains in speed.

This renewed interest in speed seems to represent a return to a narrower viewpoint. I found that as I became more involved in the teaching of reading, I was teaching about clear and concise writing at the same time. I'm sure many others did also. And, as my viewpoint grew broader, I started to include other areas of communication. Once again I found that there were many ahead of me in thinking along these lines.

It may well be that we should not teach reading by itself, but as part of the total communications setting. How can we talk about improving our skill in reading materials written today unless we also do something about improving the ability of the people who will do the writing? Developing our thinking along these lines, our division at Temple University started to organize courses in "Reading, Writing and Listening."

The next problem is one of particular interest to me. Each subject area seems to have peculiar needs and problems of its own. Understanding these problems should bring about greater insight into methods of improving reading in that area. My interest has been in the study of law.

I have made one tentative conclusion, which, though simple, may be of some importance. I can't share the beliefs of my lawyer friends, the Law School faculty members, and the Law School students, that you have to read just about every word in every law book and in every case.

For some time now, I have been questioning the belief that the lawyer's reading lead is more difficult than that of any other profession, though it may be heavier. I found this out when I taught a reading course under the auspices of the Committee on Continuing Legal Education of the American Law Institute. A thorough examination of the material that came across the lawyer's desk convinced most of us that a careful, detailed reading was necessary for a large part of it.

It was through this program that I became involved in the Temple University Law School Reading Program. The lawyers felt that it was too late for them to take reading improvement courses after they started to practice law. The place to teach reading was in the law school.

This brings us to another problem, one with a fairly simple solution. To improve the reading ability of doctors, lawyers, dentists, and so forth, why not institute advanced reading comprehension courses for them while they are still in professional school? Unfortunately, the professional schools seem to have no room in their curricula for courses of this type.

At Temple University, however, Dean Benjamin Boyer of the School of Law, and Dr. Emmett A. Betts, Director of The Reading Clinic, were both interested in this problem, and initiated a Law School Reading Program in the early 1950's. I started to teach in the program in 1957, and was able to have writing skills included in it soon after.

As indicated earlier, the students seemed to be reading their legal materials at a rate between 75 and 200 words per minute. An increase to 250 words a minute would therefore represent a sizeable increase. Because of the comprehension and conceptual problems inherent in the field, too much attention cannot be given speed. A student starting law school is in a new and different realm, much like a youngster starting elementary school. Students with inadequate vocabulary scores, and there are many of them, have particularly difficult problems.

In my work, I was able to become fairly well convinced about what I thought to be true all along -- that reading ability was one of the most important factors in success in law school. From my experience with former classes, I estimated that good readers had about two chances out of three of finishing law school, while the poor readers had only about one chance out of three. Good reading skills made quite a difference.

The next problem is a difficult one, and will probably necessitate a great deal of research and study to help solve it. It concerns the need to do a great deal of thinking about our definitions of these crucial words: reading, speed reading, and comprehension.

Earlier, Senator Proxmire was quoted as indicating that he was able to read 20,000 words a minute. Is this reading, or is it skimming? A very different definition of reading is offered by Harry Willmer Jones, in the Second Edition of "Materials for Legal Method", published by the Foundation Press, Brooklyn, N.Y. in 1952. He says, on page 35:

> "A 'case' is not 'read' by the hasty hedge-hopping of its sentences. 'Reading,' as this word is used in law study, includes grasping its entire meaning, complete apprehension...If the student is well above average in ability, he will be doing as well as he can hope to do, if he successfully reads ten pages of the ordinary casebook in sixty minutes."

What, then, would be a satisfactory reading speed? And what would be an adequate comprehension score? According to Professor Jones, 100% comprehension with a speed of no more than approximately 100 words a minute is necessary.

In law schools, a large number of first year students experience difficulty in writing briefs. They never seem to know how long a brief should be. Brief writing may be considered to be somewhat similar to precis writing. Mostly, the briefs are too long. The student is afraid that a short brief will not be evidence of a 100% level of comprehension. Actually, the reverse may be true.

What is needed is a good working definition of comprehension, one that indicates that it operates at various levels. Sometimes, 50% comprehension is sufficient; at other times, 99% is not enough. How is the student to know what comprehension score is satisfactory? We fall back on the old refrain, that "it depends on our purpose for reading."

It is at this point that we seem to arrive at the conclusion that it is the same familiar story that reading people hear again and again. The problem in reading are the same at all levels, from pre-primer through adult. The difference is only a matter of degree.

A number of other problems should be noted and discussed briefly:

a. Fees. There is a tremendous disparity in the fees charged for reading programs. Fees may range in price from $5.00 to hundreds of dollars. Very often, the size of the fee charged will have little to do with the quality of the program. One would like to see some start made in attempting to set up professional standards. In Philadelphia, there are at least a dozen schools or private institutions offering reading programs. Simple inquiries from reading groups would doubtless produce better programs.

b. Salaries. A similar disparity exists in the salaries paid to instructors of reading programs, possibly because most of these courses are taught by part-time teachers. In some way, standards should be set and maintained to insure good teaching.

c. Vision. My own particular results in the testing of vision, using the Telebinocular, indicate that approximately one out of every three adults, with or without correction, has some serious visual difficulty. Individuals are too often completely remiss about checking their vision frequently.

d. Machines. What was often a major problem and a center of controversy some years ago may soon become very minor and unimportant. The teaching machine movement has been sweeping the country so rapidly today that our relatively few pieces of reading equipment look puny and insignificant in comparison to the mechanical marvels that are being produced.

This is not to indicate, by any means, that the teaching machine will take over American education. The program itself is the important factor. Teaching machines are only one of a number of methods of presentations of programs.

e. Programmed Learning. Individuals all over the country are writing programs today. There is a likelihood that at least ten groups or individuals somewhere in this country are experimenting with programs in adult reading. With foundations supplying funds, there is a great impetus for research and development, and dramatic changes may soon be taking place in at least certain aspects of the teaching of reading.

f. Tests. Instructors still cannot be sure that today's tests accurately measure the student's progress, and the effectiveness of the course. Better measures are needed to evaluate programs through pre- and post-testing. Some standardization in the methods of reporting test results would also prove helpful.

In a general survey of the field of adult reading, one conclusion seems inescapable. As one thinks about the methods of teaching adults, one continually goes back to comparisons concerning teaching at earlier and different age and reading levels. The basic and fundamental issues in reading are the same at all the reading levels.

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A NEW METHOD OF TEACHING READING

Evelyn N. Wood
Reading Dynamics Corporation

The Wood method is in no sense a substitute for the basic reading skills which have always been taught. I know of nothing which can take the place of word attack skills or getting meaning from a sentence or paragraph. Without these skills there would be no rapid reading, for without them there would be no reading. The Wood method builds upon this foundation, but goes further. When a person has mastered the Wood technique he is able to read by moving his eyes quickly, easily, and smoothly down the page gathering the meaning. He is receptive to many words at a time. He feels and recognizes the concepts the words express or build. The author's thought flow to the reader's mind and often he feels as though he were thinking them. He sees the material in the article as a whole, rather than the accumulation of many small parts each one cautiously, meticulously placed side by side, much as one fits a 500 piece jig-saw puzzle together. He sees the whole article much as the author first conceived it.

This broad over-all view increases his understanding and enjoyment of reading for having seen the whole he is able to examine the parts in their proper relationship more intelligently.

We are not setting a precedent; we are exploiting an established fact. You realize, of course, that there have been very fast readers before we began to teach the methods we use. President Theodore Roosevelt averaged three books a day while he was President. Reading at the safe, slow rate of 250 to 400 words per minute he would never have had time to be president. Anyone can find fast readers in almost any community. Mr. Campbell, of one of the best known law firms in Washington, read a law book he picked up as interesting at between 1,500 and 3,000 words per minute.

A young boy in one of my classes at the University of Utah read a book between 2,000 and 3,000 words per minute. He told me he had read very fast all of his life. He was an excellent student. I have been able to produce such a skill and more. One of my pupils, Bob Darling, is the top student in his high school class. He has read the Wood method and has been able to establish his place at the top and keep it for a year and five months, reading everything including 5,000 books he has read in this amount of time, at a very fast pace.

Many people assume that because they can't read down the page that no one else can. They are inclined to judge what other people are able to do by their own ideas of what can be done. Dr. Thomas Parmley, head of the physics department, University of Utah, said after he had seen a demonstration, "The question is not can it be done or has it been done, but what can we do to perfect it and pass it on to a generation who needs it so greatly."

Our training methods are not at issue. Those we are presently using, have as their aim the release of the student from habits of the past, and the building of new habits which permit him to read down the page without vocalizing and without eye-regression. We are presently using practice sessions and procedures I have developed over twelve years of trial and error, first teaching myself and then teaching my own high school students and college students. I have trained teachers to do this on their own without my direct supervision. This takes at least nine months. I have learned from them. We are now at the point where we have established internal research on every aspect of our procedures, our students and our results. We have agreed to allow Educational Testing Service of Princeton to run a battery of tests on our students matched against a control group. We will be teaching teachers this summer in a credit course at an eastern State University.

My purpose in speaking here is, in all humility, to make you aware of something in your field that all your training has told you did not exist. One instance, one Theodore Roosevelt or Bob Darling show you it exists and your text books are wrong. It is not my purpose to ask you to review my work. None of you could be so presumptuous as to think if you were, for instance, a Newtonian physicist that you could review Fermi's work and prove that an atomic bomb could not be made. Certainly you cannot evaluate something about which you know nothing. I invite you to pursue your scholarly quest for learning, for expanding the boundaries of knowledge. This is a step beyond the basic skills you inculcate so well. We build on your basic work. Eventually you too should be able to take students all the way.

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LACK OF READING TRAINING: A PUBLIC SCHOOL VIEWPOINT

Rosemary Green Wilson
School District of Philadelphia

My appearance before you today has somewhat an element of drama in that it represents an opportunity long "devoutly wished" to present a public school viewpoint on teacher training to college representatives having responsibilities in that field. I welcome the chance to give to this influential group certain ideas concerning the lack of adequate preparation of beginning teachers in the area of reading at both elementary and secondary level. Had I been asked to discuss this topic even a year ago, it is not likely that I would have devoted much of my attention to the elementary level. However, in the intervening time, my added supervisory responsibilities in the elementary schools have made me very much aware of a lack of training at that level, also.

My purpose in speaking to you on this topic, however, is not in the nature of an indictment but, rather, a plea for a closer cooperation on this very important matter between the teacher training institutions and the public schools to which most of your graduates turn for employment. All that we can do in the way of on-the-job training during the probationary period and afterward is useless without a solid background of professional training in language, reading, and related areas at the college level.

Why the "pursuit of excellence" to which so many colleges are now dedicated must preclude *any* emphasis on "how to do it" courses is difficult to explain. Such a plan carried to extremes would tend in the direction of placing teaching in a category with medicine, with the undergraduate years devoted to a kind of "pre-teaching" preparation similar to the "pre-medical" program now in effect.

Such a plan, for example, was announced last January at Founder's Day at the University of Pennsylvania with the disclosure of the discontinuance of an undergraduate School of Education. If other colleges and universities were to follow suit, the ever-present problem of teacher recruitment of the big city school systems would be very much more difficult.

The Elementary School

In the course of my work as a member of the State Reading Committee during the last four years, I have become rather familiar with the offerings of the teacher training institutions of Pennsylvania in the field of reading and related subjects. One of the real surprises, not to say shocks of this study came with the realization that only one course in language arts is required of students majoring in elementary education. Since such a course would probably include all phases of the language arts, it is quite likely that only one third of the time or less might be given to reading per se. This fact has been confirmed by recent conversations with young teachers and, to a degree, by observation in their classrooms. In the case of many of these teachers, unhappily, there seems to be a paucity of courses either required or elective directly related to the field of reading at the undergraduate level.

How this situation has developed in view of the tremendous importance of language arts in the elementary program is difficult to understand.

The Secondary School

Not so difficult to understand, but equally deplorable, is the situation with regard to college courses in the teaching of reading at the secondary level. As the result of a survey made by the State Reading Committee in 1957, it was discovered that only three teacher-training colleges in Pennsylvania offered a course in this field at that time. Because of a number of factors, including the Governor's Conference on Education, the subsequent state-mandated program in developmental reading, and the inclusion of representatives from the colleges on the State Reading Committee, there has been tremendous improvement in this area. Judging from reports made at several recent State Committee meetings, all State Colleges now offer some work in secondary reading either in their regular session or in summer school. In addition, private institutions are also planning or have already set up such courses. While all of this is definitely to the good, many of us in the public schools hope that one more step will be taken, namely, the requiring of at least one course in the teaching of reading for all secondary education majors or, at least, those majoring in the subject fields of English, social studies, mathematics, and science. I can think of nothing that would give a beginning teacher more security in his new job than some understanding of the reading problems of his students and techniques to use in meeting them. From recent events at the state level, I am encouraged to think that we are moving in this direction.

Having belabored the negative aspects of this situation, I should like to turn now to the positive side of the picture to discuss the phases of the language and reading field which might well be presented to prospective teachers in the course of their undergraduate training. As an illustration, I shall mention first the various types of language courses which might be offered individually or in different combinations to these teachers, both elementary and secondary. The number and nature of these courses reflect my own belief in the importance of language and the primacy of speech in relation to reading and writing. This latter concept which is basic in the thinking of structural linguists is to be found, also, in the general literature of the field wherein it is described as the sequence of language development - listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Whatever the particular course which is devised, certain basic principles in this field must be taught, learned, and understood clearly by the prospective teacher. For example, such concepts as the changing and developmental nature of our English language, American English as it differs in patterning pronounciation, and vocabulary from British English, standard vs. nonstandard English, and many others serve to give a student background and perspective in dealing with the various language problems which his students bring with them to the classroom from first grade through senior high school. Some of the specific courses which are now being offered or which could be offered in this field are as follows:

The Nature of Language
An Introduction to Structural Linguistics
Modern English Philology
History of the English Language

While I realize that many colleges do offer courses of this type, it is the rare beginning teacher who has had any contact with them. Either they have been on a purely elective basis or are given only at the graduate level.

Though it is probably asking too much, I should like to make a modest plea, also, for some kind of work in the area of speech, both corrective and general speech improvement. The correction of non-standard pronunciation and speech patterns is undoubtedly of much greater importance and urgency in large urban centers than in surrounding suburban or rural areas. Yet, wherever these problems exist, they present formidable barriers to both children and teachers along the road to success in speaking, reading, and writing.

Obviously not original with me, but important in the training of elementary teachers are such courses as:

The Inter-relatedness of the Language Arts
Psychology of the Reading Process
Adjusting Reading Instruction to Individual Needs
Primary Reading (including Readiness for Reading)
Word Analysis Skills
Auditory and Visual Perception
Reading Disabilities: Diagnosis and Treatment
Techniques of a Basic Program
Child Development or Adolescent Psychology
The Gifted Child and the Slow Learner

Exposure to the ideas presented in such courses would go a long way toward preparing the beginning teacher for the many demands which will be made on her in planning and carrying out an effective reading program in the large, heterogeneous classes of today's public schools. Without this kind of background, we are dooming young teachers to a period of frustration and even failure until time, experience, and help from other teachers and supervisors enables them to work out their salvation by means of trial and error. It seems to me not too far-fetched to expect every elementary teacher (especially of the primary grades) to be a specialist in reading and every secondary teacher to be aware of the reading problems at that level and to have some command of the techniques involved in developmental reading.

In addition to courses, however, I would ask that the colleges give serious thought to the best ways to encourage students as they enter the teaching profession:

1. To have an inquiring mind and one which seeks answer to questions that are raised.

2. To be optimistic rather than pessimistic; to refuse to accept defeat if the first years are very difficult.

3. To be independent in their thinking about both general philosophy and specific techniques.

4. To be creative and imaginative in their work with children and young people.

While the foregoing suggestions might well apply to the entire field of teaching, I think that, in addition, each one bears a particular relationship to the teaching of reading and the other language arts. Since the real measure of a teacher's success at the elementary level is a measure of her success in the language arts program, I have included these ideas in my discussion.

The day after I completed this paper, the report from the Harvard University Graduate School of Education entitled "The Torch Lighters, Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading" came to my desk. This definitive study made under the direction of Dr. Mary C. Austin provides a fitting climax to my talk today. It is to this report, I am sure, that both colleges and schools will turn for some time to come for direction in the important work of training "tomorrow's teachers of reading" for it is to all of us here today that the quotation from Plato refers that "those having torches will pass them on to others."

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THE TEACHER TODAY

Eleanor Logan
Pennsylvania Military College

THE INVENTORY

At the suggestion of the Board of Directors of the College Reading Association a study of teacher-felt needs at the elementary level (1) was conducted this spring based on an Inventory which asked respondents to record:

(1) some background information about their training and teaching experience,
(2) preparation for teaching and problems which have arisen from its nature,
(3) interest in further education in reading either in college or in service,
(4) problems faced by individuals in their own teaching situations which grew out of home, child, or school conditions and instructional areas. The questionnaire, in order to allow for the greatest amount of freedom of expression or opinion, was loosely knit in the manner of the Western Michigan University Chapter of

IRA's study (2) although not so informal as Herman Estrin's "What Professors Think About Grammar." (3) The Inventory identified the typical areas in which problems are to be found and asked for a brief statement in justification of choices and positions taken in any area. It also provided space for typical problems and areas of difficulty peculiar to particular classrooms or schools.

THE SCHOOLS

Three hundred and eighty eight elementary teachers from ten school districts in one of the most highly industrialized counties in the East were the population in this particular study of the general area of teacher preparation and problem. The schools in which they teach are samplings from the total school population of each of the county's diversified areas - city, suburban, and country. The city and environs are the most diversified of all the schools in the socio-economic status of the families from which pupils come, with emphasis in numbers toward the lower end of the scale.

BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

Sixty six percent of the teachers in these various schools hold permanent certificates for teaching in the state, 30% have provisional certification, 3.3% reported they did not know the status of their certification, and .7% reported that they had none.

As for the number of years spent in teaching, the range in years is from one year to over forty years of service. However, nearly forty-two percent have been teaching five years or less. One teacher remarked it was the policy of her school district to take new teachers in preference to older ones whatever their experience. The preponderance of first and second year teachers, and the five year or less percentage would tend to bear out this statement.

Fifty three percent hold Bachelor of Science degrees, 9.1 percent have Bachelor of Arts degrees and one teacher is a Bachelor of Philosophy. Over 11% of these teachers hold a master's degree. One teacher reported working on a doctorate at present. On the other hand 26% have no degrees, being two year graduates of normal schools and teachers college prior to the change in requirements for teacher certification.

Over 64% of our group attended state colleges (normal schools, teachers colleges). Over 22% are the graduates of universities, and 13% are graduates of liberal arts colleges. This lays the honor or onus on the type of preparation received by the majority of these teachers at the door of state colleges.

PREPARATION IN COLLEGE

In appraising their college preparation for teaching reading 40.1% of our respondents indicated they thought their training was adequate or better. On the other hand, 47% indicated theirs was not, either by direct statement or by admitting dependence "solely," "almost entirely," or "completely on Teacher's Manuals" for knowing how to teach. Over 39% stated flately they thought their college work ranked from "inadequate" to "very poor." These statements would tend to prove that some of the teachers are as willing as the specialists (4) to bewail the limited and superficial training they received for teaching of reading and is in contradiction to the results of the Michigan Study where "less than 2% of the responses of teachers regarded teacher preparation... as a significant problem."(5

From State (Teachers) Colleges come the following comments:

The 30's

(Prospective teachers) need more practice in teaching reading. (They need) a good course in phonics. 1933.

I feel I had little preparation for teaching reading....one course (6) that did not include the teaching of reading skills other than meaning and appreciation. 1935.

The 40's

When I started teaching reading, I felt very unprepared. 1942.

(There was) an absence of good teaching of reading courses for intermediate grades applicable to the time available in a classroom situation. 1943.

Very inadequate preparation from Teachers College. 1945.

After graduating from college I was lost when it came to teaching reading. The workshops have helped tremendously. 1946.

Course given at State Teachers College was of little value. 1946.

The 50's

Undergraduate course was most inadequate - not enough actual practice as undergraduates. 1951.

My college courses have not benefited me like the Reading Workshops. 1952.

> Guide books are sufficient (to supplement little college preparation) for regular reading. But more practical help (in college) should be offered for problem readers. 1953.
>
> One teacher taught all the methods courses - not too good. 1954.
>
> The preparation was inadequate, *the course* I took did not dwell on basic situations. 1959.
>
> Teaching of reading was poorly taught in college. 1959. *One course is not enough.* 3 in 1959.

The 60's

> Very inadequate preparation from college. 1960.
>
> An actual reading book was never placed in my hands. Phonics was not emphasized. 1960.
>
> *One course is not enough*. 1960.
>
> Not enough courses in reading and poor instruction in courses given. 1960.
>
> I had little preparation for teaching reading. I learned how to teach during my practice teaching. 1960.

Lest those of us who do not teach in state colleges are smiling smugly to ourselves at this point, let me disabuse any misconception about some liberal arts preparation.

> The courses I had in Teaching of Reading was worthless... In-service meetings help. 1951.

> In-service training classes (have proved) much more helpful than college courses. 1952.

> I had little preparation....I would like a course that has an instructor who knows and understands the classroom climate. 1953.

> A good workshop and some excellent books on teaching each subject are as good as a whole semester course. 1953.

> I feel my preparation was inadequate because it did not prepare me to meet the real-life problems and situations. 1959.

> I am unsure of proper methods of presenting and building skills. 1960.

There are fewer such comments, of course, because the percentage of liberal arts graduates is just 13% of our total number of respondents.

Nor can the university teachers of reading assume they do not need to re-examine their programs. Here are a few comments from their 22.1% graduates.

> I have found in-service training classes more helpful than college courses. 1936.

> Preparation was inadequate. 1944.

> I had no training in phonics at all and need it. 1952.

> Preparation of little value except through student teaching. 1956.

> The course I had was poor - aimed at philosophy rather than practical methods and problems. [illegible].

> Preparation should include ways of diagnosing and helping children who have difficulty in reading. (To graduate, June, 1961).

Let us turn to some of the typical comments made by those who felt themselves anywhere from adequately (36.5%) to well-prepared (3.8%).

State College Graduates

> Adequate preparation in college was given (including courses in) Teaching of Reading, History of Reading, Visual Aids, Psychology, Introduction to Teaching, Educational Measurements. (Normal School, 1925). (7)
>
> Adequate preparation (in the) required courses: Reading in Primary Subjects, Remedial Reading, Teaching of Elementary English, Speech, Newer Practices in Elementary Education., 1958.

Liberal Arts Graduates

> I had an excellent professor for my Teaching of Reading course. She gave us a good bit of practical knowledge which has been a great help to me. I feel I had good preparation. 1934.
>
> My student teaching was a great help as I learned from my critic teachers. 1960.

Many of the 11.6% who hold master's degrees and who have taken two or more reading courses at the graduate level report no problems arising from lack of preparation.

Typical comments are:

> No problems. Courses taken in college in Teaching of Reading, Foundation of Reading;

since college, Remedial Reading Materials, Developmental Reading, Group Testing in Reading.

Additional courses taken: Teaching of Reading (Materials and Appreciation), Remedial Reading, Accelerated Reading. No Problems.

In addition there are some long-time teachers ranging in experience from twenty to thirty years or more who have taken courses in reading as they worked for their bachelor's degrees, and who, in general, find the combination of long experience and instruction in the newer techniques has given them adequate preparation.

What conclusions should we draw from this? Perhaps none. Our sampling of people with a number of courses in reading is quite small. We have no indication from the Inventory of the quality of the teaching resulting from this confidence. Yet, I think we might indulge in some inferential speculation and ask some questions. Are graduate courses better in quality than undergraduate ones? Is a plethora of courses more help just because there are more? Must theory be tempered by experience? These questions lead us to our summation of the major preparational problems exhibited by our respondents.

Even a rapid glance over statements on preparation made by both groups reveals, in addition to comment upon the content and quality of instruction in college, three convictions which should be given serious consideration by administrators, directors, and teachers of college reading.

I. The plea for practical help in dealing with actual situations that must be faced in the classroom instead of the prevailing emphasis upon theory or philosophy arises again and again.

II. Tied closely to this is the other major plea - for more experience in working with children. That experience is the best teacher and that actual classroom teaching is imperative for successful preparation is a repetitive theme that threads its way through these completed surveys. Even many who think they had sufficient training feel as one teacher so aptly put it "much of what is learned in college has little or no meaning until one enters personally into teaching." The core of preparation for teaching reading should lie in teaching practice with the opportunity toward working with children and to use materials such as are found in unselective public schools. The demonstration school which in many instances deals only with problem children, or carefully selected gifted or talented children, or with the children of faculty is not the answer. Until such time as homogeneous grouping, cross-grouping, specialized training and specialized assignments become even more the prevailing practice, or some other solution comes along --until that time--our prospective teachers are going to have to be familiar with the needs and ways of teaching all types of readers. It is for practice in doing this that they plead.

Present student teaching methods would appear to have been unsatisfactory for many of these teachers in spite of the praise bestowed upon it by the 4.9% who did find it helpful. Ninety-five percent failed to mention it at all in their lists of college courses that were aids in the teaching of reading. Yet this is the way the college has used to present the experience that the elementary teacher considers the heart of the teacher training program. Is curricular change called for?

If so, one possible solution and one which public schools should welcome under present teacher scarcity, would be an extension of the work-study plan to the teacher training program. In this plan a student teacher would be in charge of a certain group or groups of children for a semester - at least - under the supervision of a master teacher who could show by example what good teaching is.(8) The student would be responsible jointly to the college in which she is studying and to the administration of the school in which she is teaching. At the college this would involve a readjustment of program and study time, a closer entente with prevailing conditions. From the public school it would require cooperation, community education, and some remuneration for the student teacher. The major obstacle to the plan - but a hurdle which must be surmounted - is the master teacher. Not too many schools have them. They probably, at first, at any rate, would have to be supplied by the college - and their position with school and college would be unique - presenting some rather obvious complications of jurisdiction, relationship to the public school faculty, and so forth. Part of the responsibility of the colleges would be the training of a special group of master teachers whose function would be supervising of this new practice teaching.

HELPFUL COLLEGE PREPARATION

When our group of teachers had an opportunity to re-examine their college preparation in relationship to those courses which had proved most useful in the teaching of reading 21.4% designated only one course had helped them while 22% indicated no course had really been an aid! Only one person stated that all methods courses taken had been helpful although 40.5% reported having had five or more such courses, most of them involving verbal comprehension content, and a number of others indicated they had had so many they couldn't remember them all. On the other hand, 8.9% indicated that all their liberal arts courses were aids.

The individual courses that proved most helpful would indicate further need of an honest reevaluation. Teaching of Reading, which came under fire in some of the criticisms I have quoted previously none-the-less was the single course nominated most frequently as having been an aid when it was properly taught. Twenty-one percent of this group considered this among the most useful courses they had taken in college.

The three courses reported as being most helpful after teaching of Reading were: Children's Literature 19.7%, Language Arts 15.2%, and Child Development or Psychology 13.8%. Each of these represents a choice of less than one quarter of the total number in the study. But each does correlate with the earlier request for more practical training since it can and frequently does provide both approaches and materials to be used.

INTEREST IN ADDITIONAL STUDY

Asked if they would be willing to take courses in reading if offered by nearby colleges at convenient times such as summer, evenings, and Saturdays 45.2% indicated a willingness to study. Some of those who acquiesced qualified their statements with such comments as: if the courses are more practice than theory, if they offer practical procedures, if they are applicable to classroom situations, if they are of the laboratory type, if credit is given toward a degree.

In estimating the value of courses available to them 45% of those expressing an interest in further study chose Remedial and Corrective Reading as the course potentially most useful or valuable to them. Over thirteen percent chose Basic Foundations in Reading as the most useful course. Twelve percent chose Teaching of Reading; over ten percent selected Disabilities and the Elementary School Reading Program. For second choice in potential usefulness Remedial and Corrective Reading won the vote of 13.8%. Disabilities was the second choice of 13.5%. Reading for Speed and Comprehension and Workshop in Reading were chosen as second most valuable by 12%.

In spite of the fact that 25.7% of the teachers in the study report some dissatisfaction with methods presently used for identifying levels of achievement and individual needs and for evaluation progress, there was a negligible vote for courses which might reasonably be expected to be helpful, such as Group Testing, Psychometric Techniques, Introduction to Disgnosis, and Diagnosis and Analysis of Reading Difficulties.

Dissatisfaction over the quality and kind of instruction some of the teachers received in college is reflected, as we have noted, in the fact that 59.1% of the teachers have taken no courses in reading since college. Reasons given were lack of time, money, and interest as well as personal concerns which precluded additional study. On the other hand 26.6% report having taken one course since college and almost 10% (9.7%) report having had two courses. 17.3% of those who have taken courses since college took Teaching of Reading. Thirteen percent took Diagnostic and Remedial Reading. Over 5% took Workshops in Reading for credit. On the other hand, a much larger percentage (30.2%) has taken County Reading Workshops which are in-service training without college credit.

INSERVICE TRAINING

A preference for in-service training over further college work was reported by 54%. The Inventory reveals that this preference is influenced by many contributory factors aside from some distaste for previous college work. For one thing, in-service training brings the work to the teacher, or it is given in a nearby school so that the teacher does not have to travel any distance to take advantage of it at the end of the school day. Some would prefer school time for this instruction. It is given in shorter periods of time than a semester -- ranging as indicated here from one day periods to an hour or two once a week for a six weeks period, or once each month for a semester, or a week or two in summer. It may pinpoint a specific area for work, such as vocabulary or critical reading. It can be more consistently adjusted to grade level although a number of teachers would like to see more of this done than has been in the past. And last, but perhaps not least, it rarely requires assignments, term papers, tests, and grades, all of which are still considered essential by colleges before they will bestow credit. This points up, in turn, a weakness of present in-service training in the eyes of some teachers: time spent without credit.

Another important contributory factor in the case of the particular county schools studied is the excellent program of in-service training instituted eight years ago by a very competent county reading consultant who gives County Workshops open to all interested teachers, and who is available to do specific work in individual classrooms with teachers, to give demonstrations, to hold group meetings to discuss the particular problems that arise in specific schools, and who is available for individual conference in the classroom or at her office. The use of her services is optional, and some schools have made much more use of this professional help than others. Classroom teachers in districts that use this help, or that have special reading consultants in their own schools, have fewer problems.

All schools do not avail themselves of the maximum help available even in this county; but many school districts are not so fortunate as to have any reading consultants at the county level or in individual schools. One of the problems presented to the College Reading Committee of Pennsylvania this year was how the state colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities offering teacher training could help in the establishment of some kind of professional guidance in the public schools (especially the junior high schools). The help wanted extends from serving as discussion guide leaders and resource people as suggested by Sheldon Maderia, Assistant Director of the Bureau of Curriculum Service, to heading workshops and conferences.

This need presents a chance for greater cooperation between college and public school in the expansion and redirection of extension courses. (9) If such cooperative ventures could be worked out between teacher training institutions and nearby schools with a close tie-in between the work offered and the prevailing classroom problems in the given schools at the same time in which credit could be given for the work, teachers would probably be as enthusiastic about this as the particular groups who have had in-service training in this county are about its benefits.

Now this is not to imply there are no dissenting voices about in-service training. Over 25% would prefer college to in-service training, and 14.8% are not interested in any form of in-service work. While most did not indicate why, a few stated that such training did not give help in teaching poor readers and was sometimes based on opinion rather than research. In addition there were some qualifying comments made about all forms of inservice instruction.

The three most favored forms were demonstrations, workshops, and conferences with specialists. Sixty-six percent think demonstrations are most valuable, some qualifying their choice by specifying that they be presented under "normal teaching conditions" rather than being "hand-picked groups of gifted children with ready responses" or groups "all with the same problem." Some would like demonstrations showing particularly how to deal with problem readers. Some would prefer that they did not represent a book company. And a few wistfully added that they would like the demonstrations "on school time rather than personal time." Fifty-five percent voted for workshops "because you can iron out problems directly with assistance from specialists." Qualifying statements here expressed the desire for workshops stressing the problems of particular grade levels or clearly defined areas. Others indicated a wish for workshops dealing exclusively with the problems of poor readers. Some wish that credit would be given. Conferences with specialists was the third most popular choice (50.7%). A few, having apparently experienced conferences which were not productive, specified that the person holding the conference must be "truly a qualified specialist." Some would "like the specialist to come into the classroom, observe, and help with problems." Several teachers indicated they did not want the specialist to be a book company representative. About an equal number found book company representatives helpful.

Of interest was the less than 15% vote for Institutes, an evidence of interest far below other forms of training. A number appeared to have attended them, some very regularly. Satisfaction with gains is expressed too. But there are objections as well. As one teacher expressed it, "They have always helped me, but they do not give an individual a chance to solve problems." Other criticisms were that Institutes tend "to be too generalized," that "they are spread too thin in an attempt to appeal to all reading teachers." In contrast to this, those of us who have been contributors to, or attendants at, Institutes in the last few years know that teacher interest and attendance seems to grow every year rather than diminish.

PHONETIC ANALYSIS

Highest in the category of the teacher's daily dilemmas is how to teach phonetic analysis, as 36.7% indicated. One stated the main difficulty is "there is a definite weakness in this area because the teachers themselves feel indadequate in these skills." Leo Fay in his "Trends in the Teaching of Elementary Reading" says the residue of "the big play five to ten years ago on phonetics has resulted in "re-emphasizing the importance of the skills of word study in any approach to the teaching of reading." (10) This would appear to be the case in the schools within this study.

Typical comments were:

> I teach phonics daily and emphasize it in reading. 1930.

> I consider this most important to good reading. 1959.

Difficulties pinpointed, in addition to inadequate teacher knowledge, were:

1. No phonics training in the lower grades.
2. Poor general preparation.
3. Little carry-over from reading class to independent work.
4. Lack of retention; poor memory.
5. Failure to distinguish among sounds (hearing problems).
6. Speech problems.
7. Low groups inability to grasp or use.

Should we conclude that phonetic analysis is one of the basic skills and should be taught to prospective teachers?

COMPREHENSION

Thirty-six percent found sufficient problems in the area of comprehension to express concern. Types of difficulty encountered were:

1. Verbalizers: good oral readers who lack comprehension. This situation becomes more acute as pupils advance through intermediate grades.

2. Reading too fast to get full gist of content.

3. Work books with directions written above the vocabulary level of pupils.

4. Dependence on pictures for understanding.

5. Lack of interest in stories.

6. Poor background (limited experience).

7. Failure to intensify tone or intent.

8. Low ability.

9. Laziness.

The possible help most often proposed was more workshops related to these skills.

What can colleges do to better prepare teachers to cope with comprehension problems? Implied is the need for more:

1. Research and study into ways and means of isolating verbalizers very early.

2. Instruction in techniques for, and practice in, evolving types of comprehension checks: factual, inferential, and interpretive.

3. Ways and means to supplement materials.

4. Knowledge of motivational factors.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Thirty-five percent consider individual differences a major problem. Most of those who report problems in class size (18.1%) and in grouping for instruction (21.1%) give as explanation for objections to large classes and wide ranges their inability under the circumstances to attend to individual differences as did 33% who indicated the pressure of time.

As late as 1960 Dr. William D.Sheldon of Syracuse University was expressing confidence in heterogeneous (12) grouping and Dr. WillardC. Olson of the University of Michigan was writing "all forms of grouping are without special potency," (13) but these teachers, with few exceptions, would not agree; they find fewer problems when teaching in:

1. A self-contained classroom having in it children of like abilities.
2. Individual grades divided into homogeneous groups for reading instruction, each teacher having one section in a "three track" program.
3. Intermediate grades cross-grouped for reading instruction.

Conclusions we may draw in this area are:

1. Homogeneous grouping is in on the whole more satisfying to teachers than heterogeneous grouping.
2. Cross-grouping, while it does not eliminate problems in dealing with individual differences, does provide more advance at pace commensurate with ability.
3. There is need for differentiated approaches in the teaching of reading for individual differences and patterns of learning.

READINESS

While three teachers expressed the feeling that too much time is spent in readiness activities, thirty percent of the teachers found lack of readiness a serious problem. Contrary to much of the popular literature stressing accelerated education starting with kindergarteners, (14) a major cause of reading difficulty throughout the grades and particularly in the primary group, in the opinion of our respondents, is immaturity-mental and physical. Forty-six teachers state they believe many children start school too early. Other reasons given were:

1. Poor background.
2. Lack of kindergarten experience.
3. Low ability.
4. Poor psychological set for school.

Recommended were:

1. Later admittance by at least one year for some.
2. Kindergarten (to supplement deficiencies in experiential background).
3. More variety in material used.
4. Earlier grouping than is now practiced.

SENTENCE AND PARAGRAPH STRUCTURE

Twenty-seven percent find weakness in the sentence and paragraph structure concepts of their pupils and most add "regardless of I.Q." Part of the reason for this lies outside the classroom as with most of the instructional problems, but more of it lies within than is generally conceded. College Reading teachers might consider and exert some influence upon types of material presented to beginning readers. Actually, children speak in much more complicated sentences than they meet in reading in the first years in schools. Is it not possible then that the constant reiteration of the simple sentence with little or no adornment in the formative years has a deleterious effect upon sentence and paragraph concept so that as a teacher in this study complains "vocabulary (and sentence sense) becomes stereotyped at first grade?" Certainly not all children will learn to read complex sentences at once, since some do not in years, but I venture to say far more could than now have the opportunity. [15]

VOCABULARY

Thirty-one percent find vocabulary difficulties depressing learning curves. Reasons given were:

1. Poor home environment resulting in poor speaking vocabularies.
2. Insufficient outside reading.
3. Too much TV. (16)
4. Failure to use new vocabulary except in the classroom reading situation.
5. Little motivation toward growth or improvement.
6. Poor sight or hearing.

No specific recommendations for improvement were made. But an interest was expressed in finding more specific materials and ways to enrich vocabulary. Perhaps college reading teachers should seriously consider (as a few colleges now do) courses in vocabulary which are not dictionary centered, (important as the dictionary is) but person and concept centered. (17) A reevaluation of the best vocabulary teaching techniques may well be apropos.

OTHER PROBLEMS

Significant percentages of problems are shown in two other basic skills; critical reading (22.8%) and structural analysis (16.6%). In both of these areas the teachers feel they have not had adequate training themselves. For teaching structural analysis they rely heavily upon Teachers' Manuals. They find developing critical reading ability is complicated further by materials that offer scant opportunity to draw inferences and develop judgements. They report the problem is even more acute with low ability groups. Yet many stated they felt far more emphasis should be placed on this type of reading than now is.

SCHOOL PROBLEMS

Time

The major school problem among teachers remains the element of time. Thirty-three percent report insufficient time to do all the things they want to do. They state every reading group suffers if the classes are too large, (15) the range too great (even if class is small), the group division three or more, the time less than forty-five minutes to an hour per section. A number think there are too many subjects to be taught, and some steal from the time of the other studies for reading, and others report taking time from reading in order to get all the other subjects into the daily schedule. In self-contained classrooms some spend too much time with their slow group. Others say they find they spend too much time with the fast moving section because they are more pleasure to teach. Individual help is curtailed when time is at a premium and workbooks and exercise sheets cannot be corrected and therefore as one teacher put it "do not clinch the material taught."

The time element is also partially to blame for the 4.9% who report difficulties in the audio-visual areas. Almost all of the teachers report fair to good equipment with the exception of one school district; but lack of time and knowledge prevent their being used to the best advantage.

Library Facilities

Problems concerned with libraries are found among the teachers in all the schools although they are more acute in the lower socio-economic sections of the county where there are no community libraries, no central school library, and very inadequate classroom facilities. On the other hand some of these school districts are blessed by all three. Some of the central school libraries are staffed by a professional librarian; one has part-time parent librarians in what is a successful parent-school cooperative project. In all schools where there is not a central library, the teachers expressed an interest in having it even when their classroom libraries were adequate or better, and when there were town and home libraries available to pupils. Over 20% are concerned with library improvment. Among their suggestions are teachers going with children to the library, more books on grade levels, greater variety and more freedom of choice for independent reading.

Materials

Few teachers (2.5%) found fault with Manuals and Guide Books. As we have already noted many rely heavily upon them, finding them "excellent and very useful." Complaints were largely from teachers who do not have them, although a few complained about their being frustrating because of the number of activities proposed which they never had time to put into practice.

On the other hand, a much larger group (16.3%) found their Workbook situation less satisfactory. Complaints registered in this area are:

1. Workbooks do not match readers.
2. Are not so useful as they could be because there is no time to correct them.
3. Are not suited to the level of the abilities of some pupils.
4. Are not available at the intermediate level in some schools.
5. Do not offer enough material for advanced readers.
6. Should present more individualized activities.
7. Should have perforated tear-out pages.

8. Answer books are not always available.
9. Directions should be given in child's vocabulary level.

Testing

Thirteen percent find the present testing methods unsatisfactory. In the schools where the word recognition test is the sole method used, some of the teachers think "too much reliance is placed upon it." They find "it does not take into account the child who talks slowly, has poor eye focus or becomes nervous when tested." They find that it "emphasizes word recall too much." Others state, that even with other tests given, "not enough time is given to considerations of all the factors involved." Where oral testing is used, they find "poor diagnosis causes loss of time." Where publisher's tests are used, some think the tests are geared too exclusively to the material read, and they would prefer to administer standardized tests to establish norms. In some schools where standardized tests are used to determine grade level, the tests are discarded before analyses of types of errors can be made. A number would like "simpler tests" which were both "more exact and more reliable" and "a uniform testing program."

Over twelve percent find the methods for evaluating progress unsatisfactory. There is a considerable overlapping of tests here with those used for determining levels and needs. But in addition they also use working materials: "Reading workbooks are good for evaluation comprehension, developing skill in attacking new words, and following directions." Some consult "pupil folders, make daily and weekly checks, keep reading charts, and utilize teacher-parent conferences." Many feel the standardized tests now in use could be improved. They think more tests should be given than are at present. One teacher wrote, "I think two national tests a year rather than one at the end of the year would be more beneficial to the teacher.

After a year's over it's rather late to help with present children." In some places "teacher evaluation is the deciding factor", and the complaint here is that "they tend to be too subjective." They say, "we could use more instruments for evaluating," and would like to see "uniform methods of evaluation." As one respondent put it simply, "this is an area in which we need help." The extension of this need beyond the classroom is indicated by Dr. Betts' statement that "at present there...is no battery of standardized tests to assess adequately progress toward the major goals of instruction."(19)

RECOMMENDATIONS

Our major recommendations growing out of responses in the Inventory are a new evaluation of reading programs and a revision of curricular requirements, with the conviction that better instruction will result in better teaching.

Specifically:

1. Reorganization of teacher preparation to include more practice and less theory.

   a. More demonstrations used as a teaching device.
   b. More experience working with children in which the prospective teacher takes an active part.
   c. The presentation of more procedures and materials designed for use in the classroom situation.

2. A study of observation and student teaching practices with a change in present procedures as its ultimate goal.
3. The establishment of a work-study, apprenticeship, or similar plan whereby at least

one semester of full-time teaching is done in a typical classroom under the supervision of a master teacher.

4. The establishment of a program for training master teachers and their employment as guidance and resource people in practice teaching.
5. Change in requirements in professional training to include Teaching of Reading and Diagnostic and Remedial Reading as requisites to graduation.
6. Specific courses should be designed to teach methods and materials for intermediate level reading and be required of teachers who expect to work at this level.
7. Continuation of courses in Language Arts, Children's Literature, and Child Development and encouragement of all prospective elementary teachers to take them.
8. More stress should be placed in the college reading courses on critical reading - the student learning how to do it, as well as being told how to teach it.
9. Reevaluation of the best vocabulary teaching techniques. Instruction in phonetic and structural skills and how to use more functional methods should be included.
10. Current research should be more extensively used as instructional material.
11. Additional research should be done on principles of learning; testing as part of instruction and for determining achievement; establishing the most efficient means of developing vocabulary; critical reading; and motivational factors.
12. Students should be informed about professional journals and encouraged to subscribe to one or two of the better ones.

13. The continuation of homogeneous grouping by ability or reading levels including class and grade-cross grouping.
14. Materials that have less controlled vocabulary should be created for all levels in the elementary school for use with fast learners (and possibly some others.) (20)
15. More materials should be evolved with high interest levels and low vocabulary level for slow learners and retarded readers.

* * * *

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FOOTNOTES

1. The Inventory was sent to junior high school teachers of reading in the same school district. A study of these returns will be completed at a later time.

2. "Instructional Problems in Reading as Voiced By Teachers and Administrators." The Reading Teacher, (November 19[illegible]), p. 74.

3. The CEA Critic, (March 1961), p. 6.

4. Mary C. Austin's The Torch Lighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Education, Harvard University Press (to be published March 20 according to New York Times review of March 19, 1961) presents the specialist's point of view.

5. Op. cit., p. 77. (see foot-note 2).

6. The italics are mine. Note how frequently one course and one only is mentioned.

7. See listing of suggested helpful courses by Rosemary Green Wilson in the preceding paper, p. 65.

8. According to responses in this Inventory observing master teacher's methods has been more than one teacher's personal clue to successful teaching.

9. The University of Pennsylvania's Departmental Reading in Junior High Schools by Margaret F. Wilson and J. Wesley Schneyer, 1959 is the record of such an experiment. The idea is being successfully used by Carnegie Institute of Technology in other type courses in The Pittsburgh Cooperative Plan.

10. Phi Delta Kappan, XLI, No. 8, (May, 1960) p. 348.

11. See A. Sterl Artley's "But - Skills Are Not Enough", Education, 179, No. 9 (May 1959), p. 542 - 545 for the professorial point of view on ethical value.

12. "Differentiating Instruction to Provide for the Needs of Learners," New Frontiers in Reading. 5 (1960), p. 25.

13. "Reaching and Teaching the Individual", Phi Delta Kappan. XLI., No. 9. (June 1960), 393.

14. Dolores Durkin, "Children Who Read Before Grade One, "The Reading Teacher"(January, 1961), p. 163.

15. John Wesley's mother taught her 18 children to read using the great creation hymn in Genesis as the first lesson. Many such beginning reading assignments are recounted in the lives of men of prominence.

16. For the results of a survey on this problem see

Wilber Schramm *et al*, *Television in the Lives of Our Children*, *Stanford University Press*, *1961*.

17. George L. Kincaid, "Breaking the Learning Barrier," *Phi Delta Kappan*. XXXCX, No. 4, (January, 1959), pp. *155, 156*.

18. Classes except special education ones range in size from 20 to 44. Teachers who have twenty in a class consider it ideal especially if the group is homogeneous. Twenty-five is acceptable; over that it is considered too large.

Groups range from one to five. One is ideal according to our teachers; two, good; three, satisfactory to some but not to others; and anything over three, poor.

19. Emmett Betts, "Types of Reading Measures," *Education*, Vol. 80, No. 9, (May 1960).

20. The comment within the parenthesis is mine.